A TREATISE

ON

THE STRUCTURE

OF THE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE;

OR, THE

ANALYSIS AND CLASSIFICATION

OF

SENTENCES AND THEIR COMPONENTS

WITH

ILLUSTRATIONS AND EXERCISES

ADAPTED

TO THE USE OF SCHOOLS.

BY SAMUEL S. GREENE, A. M.,

SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS, PROVIDENCE, R. I.

OF THE NORMAL DEPARTMENT OF BROWN UNIVERSITY.

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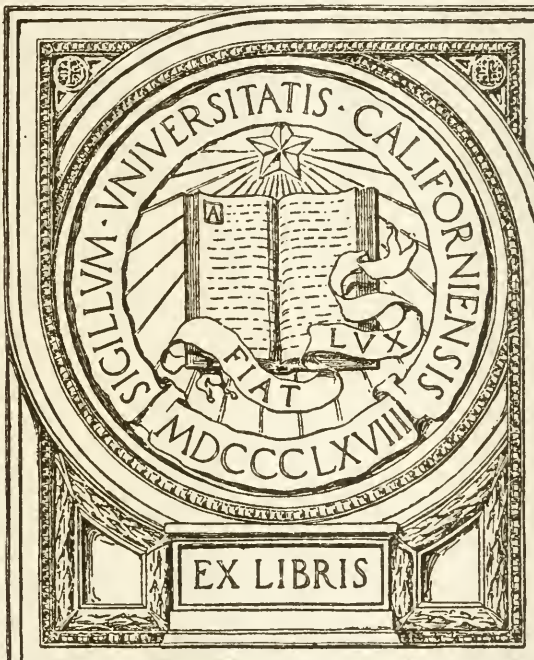

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GREENE'S ANALYSIS.

A TREATISE

ON THE

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PREFACE

The following treatise contains, as its title indicates, a system for analyzing sentences. In the preparation of the work, it has been the aim of the author, first, to determine the *number* and the *nature* of the elements which can enter into the structure of a sentence, and, secondly, to ascertain their various *forms* and *conditions*. Notwithstanding the almost infinite variety of sentences with which the language abounds, it is worthy of remark that the number of different elements in any sentence can never exceed five. It is equally remarkable that the offices which these elements perform are few and uniform, although they may assume an endless variety of forms.

As to the *forms* of the elements, it would seem, at first, a hopeless task to attempt a classification of them; yet they are found to differ *essentially* from each other only in three respects. An element may be a *word* joined to another without a connective, or it may be a word joined by means of a preposition, — both together forming a *phrase;* or it may be a subordinate proposition, joined by a connective, and constituting a *clause*. Any element may also be subject to three different *states* or *conditions*. It may be *simple*, that is, unmodified or uncompounded; it may be *complex*, that is, modified by another simple element; or it may be *compound*, that is, it may consist of two or more simple elements, which in no way modify each other. The same distinction prevails in entire sentences. A sentence containing but one proposition is *simple;* a sentence containing two propositions, one of which modifies the other, is *complex;* a sentence containing two propositions which in no way modify each other, is *compound*.

Some of the numerous advantages arising from studying grammar, or rather language, through the structure of sentences, are the following: — (1.) As a sentence is the expression of a thought, and as the elements of a sentence are expressions for the elements of thought, the pupil who is taught to separate a sentence into its elements, is learning to analyze thought, and consequently *to think*. (2.) The relations between different forms of thought and appropriate forms of expression, are seen most clearly by means of analysis and construction. (3.) A large proportion of the elements of sentences are not single words, but *combinations* or *groups* of words. These groups perform the office of the *substantive*, the *adjective*, or the *adverb*, and, in some one of

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these relations, enter in as the component parts of a sentence. The pupil who learns to determine the elements of a sentence, must, therefore, learn the force of these combinations before he separates them into the single words which compose them. This advantage is wholly lost in the ordinary methods of parsing. (4.) But the grand advantage to be gained from this method may be seen in the facility which it affords the learner for constructing the language. If English Grammar teaches "the art of speaking and writing the English language correctly," — the only successful method of obtaining a knowledge of that art is, by means of construction and analysis. This system cannot be pursued with even tolerable success, without requiring the pupil to construct repeatedly the various forms of sentences and elements of sentences. Such exercises afford the teacher an opportunity of correcting all errors in orthography, punctuation, construction, and the use of words.

It may be further added, that this system is only applying to the English what, in our higher seminaries, is applied to the classic languages. And as these seminaries are to be supplied mainly from our common schools, a demand is created for a more philosophical plan of teaching the English language.

The parts of this work are so classified and arranged that the learner commences with the simplest forms, and advances by a natural and easy gradation to the most difficult. A brief system of etymology is introduced in connection with the analysis; but, that it may not interrupt the progress of the work, it is arranged in an Appendix, and is referred to as the learner advances. The parts in large type are to be studied, while those in small type are intended for the teacher and the more advanced pupil. It may be well, on going through the work for the first time, to omit some portions of the larger type. It is the author s intention, as soon as practicable, to prepare an abridgment of the work, in which the most important principles only will be discussed, and accompanied with such exercises as will adapt the work to a younger class of pupils.

In the preparation of this treatise, the author acknowledges his indebtedness to the excellent Latin Grammar of Andrews and Stoddard, and especially to that of Dr. Kühner, translated from the German by Professor J. T. Champlin, of Waterville College; also to the invaluable Greek Grammars of Professor A. Crosby and of Dr. Kühner: those of Dr. Kühner were translated, the larger by Professor B. B. Edwards and S. H. Taylor, of Andover, the smaller by S. H. Taylor, principal of Phillips Academy. Much aid has been derived from the work of George Crane, and from that of De Sacy, on General Grammar.

Cherishing the hope that this work may contribute, in some small degree, to improve the methods of teaching the English language, the author submits it to the judgment of a candid public.

S. S. GREENE.

Boston, 1847.

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ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

1. *Language* is the medium through which we communicate our thoughts.

2. *Discourse* is a continued series of thoughts, each expressed by an assemblage of words called a *sentence.*

3. A series of sentences relating to the same subject, or the same branch of the subject, is called a *paragraph.*

4. A sentence may be considered *as a whole*, or in reference to its *component parts.*

5. The component parts of a sentence are the *words*, *phrases*, and *clauses* which enter into its structure.

6. A sentence, considered as a whole, either *declares* something, asks a *question*, expresses a *command*, or contains an *exclamation.*

The following are examples of each kind of sentence: —*Declarative.* "There are certain social principles in human nature, from which we may draw the most solid conclusions with respect to the conduct of individuals and communities."—*Interrogative.* "When was it that Rome attracted most strongly the admiration of mankind, and

impressed the deepest sentiment of fear on the hearts of her enemies?" — *Imperative.* "Shut now the volume of history, and tell me, on any principle of human probability, what shall be the fate of this handful of adventurers." — *Exclamatory.* "How different would have been our lot this day, both as men and women, had the Revolution failed of success!"

7. The component parts of a sentence are called its *elements.*

8. A sentence may contain *five* distinct elements. Of these, two are indispensable to its formation, and are hence called PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS. The other three are dependent on these, and are hence called SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS.

9. Each of these five elements may take three distinct forms, called the *first*, *second*, and *third*, classes of the elements.

CHAPTER I.

(SIMPLE SENTENCES.)

ELEMENTS OF THE FIRST CLASS.—WORDS

SECTION I.

PRELIMINARY REMARKS AND DEFINITIONS.

10. An element of the first class is a *single word*, used as a constituent part of a sentence.

11. A word is the sign of an idea.

(*a.*) An idea is a mental picture or conception of an object, either material or immaterial, and may be represented singly; as, *tree*, *river*, *horse*; or as associated with some other idea; as, *tall tree*, *deep river*, *wild horse*. In the first examples, *tree*, *river*, *horse*, represent single ideas of the objects which they name; but in the second, the ideas represented by *tall*, *deep*, and *wild*, are associated with them.

(*b.*) Some words are used merely as signs of the *relation* of ideas (see 14, *b*); as, "Kingdom *of* Great Britain."

12. Connected ideas require a corresponding connection of the words which represent them; as *faithful man*, *house of representatives*.

The words *faithful* and *man* are connected so as to show a relation between the two ideas which they represent. So also are *house* and *representatives*.

13. In connecting words, we must attend both to the *mode* and the *nature* of their union.

14. The Mode of Union. Words may be united in two ways:—

(*a.*) By joining them *immediately*, that is, without a connective;—first, without change of form; as, *good food*, *summer residence*, *very quickly*;—second, with the form of one or both the united words changed; as, "Arabia-*n* horses;" "Abraham-*'s* tent;" "Thou sit-*test*;"—

(*b.*) By using a *connective* to denote the relation between them; as, "Horses *from* Arabia;" "The tent *of* Abraham;" "Thou *art* sitting."

This mode of union is sometimes called *mediate*.

15. The Nature of the Union. We naturally distinguish objects by means of some of their *properties*; as, their color,—*black*, *white*, *red*, *blue*;

their form, — *long*, *short*, *wide*, *deep*; their actions. — *running*, *flying*, *swimming*, *crawling*; their genus or species, — *animal*, *bird*, *fish*, *serpent*. These properties are called *attributes*.

16. An attribute may be united to its object, —

(*a.*) By *assuming* a union, or by joining it without an assertion; as, *blue sky*, *rough sea*, *poisonous reptiles*; —

(*b.*) By *affirming* a union, or by joining it with an assertion; as, "The sky is blue;" "The sea rough;" "Reptiles are poisonous."

In either case, the attribute is united to the object. In the former, the fact that the property belongs to the object is only *implied*, *conceded*, or *taken for granted*; whereas, in the latter, the same is *affirmed*, *declared*, or *predicated*. In the first case, the attribute is joined *immediately* to its object; in the second, it is joined to it, and *asserted* of it, by a peculiar connective called the *copula*.

17. The *copula* is some modification (*is*, *are*, *was*, &c.) of the verb *to be*. Its office is, to assert an attribute of the thing to which it belongs.

18. The distinction between assuming and predicating an attribute, is of great importance in the construction of language; and, that the learner may become familiar with it at the outset, let him attend to the following exercise: —

Exercise 1.

Tell which of the following expressions contain an assumed, and which a predicated property: —

Sweet apples. Running water. Ice is melting. Shining gold. George is well. Fading flowers. Stars are

shining. Snow is falling. Sour grapes. The wind is blowing. Fire is burning. John is a carpenter. Singing birds. Open doors. Barren fields. Hissing serpents. A long journey. Hope is deferred.

Change each of the above expressions, by predicating the assumed, and assuming the predicated properties.

MODEL.* "Apples are sweet;" "Water is running;" "Melting ice."

Mention three or more properties of each of the following objects:—

Gold, horses, books, iron, ocean, whales, edifice, peaches, dogs, man, king, moon, water, ink, oil, lamp, table, money, pens.

Unite them first as assumed and then as predicated properties.

MODEL. *Heavy* gold; *precious* gold; *yellow* gold; *porous* gold.

MODEL. Gold is *heavy;* gold is *precious;* gold is *yellow;* gold is *porous.*

19. When an attribute is predicated of an object, the united ideas constitute a *thought*, and the form of expression is called a *sentence*, (from the Latin word *sententia*, a thought.) Hence,

20. A sentence is a thought expressed in words.

21. When an attribute is assumed of an object, no thought is expressed, but simply two ideas are associated. (11, *a.*)

---

* These exercises may be written or recited orally. It is recommended that the practice of writing lessons should be adopted as a general rule.

22. In the formation of a sentence, there must, therefore, be two parts,—that to which the attribute belongs, and the attribute itself; and the latter must be affirmed of the former.

23. That to which the attribute belongs is called the *subject;* and the attribute itself, with the word which connects (17) it to the subject, is called the *predicate.*

EXAMPLES.

Subject.	*Predicate.*
Birds	are singing.
Bees	are industrious.
George	is coming.
Victoria	is queen.

24. It very often happens that the attribute and copula are united in one word.

EXAMPLES.

Subject.	*Predicate.*
Birds	sing, (are singing.)
George	comes.
Winds	blow.
Stars	shine.

NOTE. When the predicate contains the copula and the attribute in one word, it may always be resolved into these two parts, as, "Winds blow," "Winds are blowing."

25. The uniting of words, to form a sentence, is called *construction* or *synthesis.*

26. The resolving of a sentence into its elements, or of any complex element into the parts which compose it, is called *analysis.*

27. A *simple* sentence contains but one proposition.

28. A *complex* sentence contains two or more *dissimilar* propositions.

29. A *compound* sentence contains two or more *similar* propositions.

SECTION II.*

THE PROPOSITION. — PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.

NOTE. The pupil should learn Lesson I., in the Appendix, p. 206, before studying this section.

30. A *proposition* is the combination of a subject (23) and predicate, and is either a simple sentence, or part of a complex or compound sentence.

31. The subject is that of which something is affirmed.

32. The predicate is that which is affirmed.

33. The subject is commonly a noun or pronoun.

(*a.*) Other parts of speech may be used as nouns, and therefore may become the subject; as, "Once is sufficient;" "Behind is not before."

(*b.*) Any word, used merely as a word, may be the subject; as, "*Is* is a verb;" "*Of* is a preposition."

(*c.*) A syllable or letter may be the subject; as, "*Un* is a prefix;" "*A* is a vowel."

34. The predicate consists of two parts, — the verb, or *copula*, (17,) and that which is asserted

* NOTE TO TEACHERS. The pupil should now commence the Appendix. The lessons of the Appendix are made to correspond, as nearly as possible, to the sections of CHAP. I. Since it is the chief object of this arrangement to bring the principles of etymology into immediate use, as the pupil advances, the lessons of the Appendix should be learned only as they are referred to, in the body of the work.

by it, called the *attribute;* (15,) as, "Snow *is white.*

It cannot be too strongly impressed upon the mind of the learner, at this stage of his progress, that the copula is that which gives vitality to language. No sentence can be formed without it. Any number of attributes joined to a subject without it would not form a proposition. The omission of this important connective is that which distinguishes the first attempts of children to utter their thoughts; as, "Cake good," for "Cake is good."

35. When the two parts of the predicate are united in one word, (24,) that word is always a verb; as, "John *writes.*"

(*a.*) Verbs which contain the copula and attribute are sometimes called *attributive* verbs, because the attribute is included in them.

(*b.*) The verb *to be* is sometimes an attributive verb; it then denotes existence, and is commonly preceded by *there*, and followed by its subject; as, "There are dolphins," "Dolphins exist."

(*c.*) Besides the verb *to be*, there are several others which do not complete the predicate, but take after them some word denoting a property of the subject; as, "Beggars are becoming *numerous;*" "He is called *handsome.*" These verbs are sometimes called *copulative verbs.* They are such as *become*, *seem*, *appear;* and the passive forms of *deem*, *style*, *name*, *call*, *consider*, and others.

36. Of a subject we may predicate, —

(*a.*) What it *does;* as, "Birds *fly;*" —

(*b.*) What *qualities* it possesses; as, "Sugar *is sweet;* —

(*c.*) What it *is;* as, "Wheat *is a vegetable.*"

Of these predicates, (*a.*) is always a *verb;* (*b.*) an *adjective;* and (*c.*) a *noun* or *pronoun.*

37. These three parts of speech — the *noun*, including the pronoun,) the *verb*, and the *adjec*

tive — are most commonly used to form the two principal elements of the sentence.

NOTE. Either of these three parts of speech may also be used to form the subordinate elements of a sentence.

38. A sentence containing only the two principal elements, is said to be *unlimited*, and is analyzed (26) by pointing out the subject and predicate.

39. Unlimited propositions should be analyzed according to the following

MODELS FOR ANALYSIS.

"*Birds fly*". is a proposition, because it contains a subject and predicate.

"*Birds*" . . . is the subject, because it is that of which the *action* (36, *a.*) "fly" is affirmed.

"*Fly*" . . . . is the predicate, because it is the action affirmed of "birds."

"*Snow is white*" is a proposition, because it contains a subject and predicate.

"*Snow*" . . . is the subject, because it is that of which the *quality* (36, *b.*) "white" is affirmed.

"*Is white*" . . is the predicate, because it is the quality affirmed of "snow." "Is" is the verb or copula, and "white" is the attribute.

"*Gold is a metal*" is a proposition, because it contains a subject and predicate.

"*Gold*" . . . . is the subject, because it is that of which the *class** (36, *c.*) metal is affirmed.

---

* When the predicate is a noun, it commonly denotes to what *genus*, *species*, or *class*, the subject belongs. Sometimes it denotes *identity*; as, "It is *James*:" "I am *he*."

"*Is a metal*", is the predicate, because it denotes the class which is affirmed of "gold." "Is" is the verb, and "metal," the attribute.

Exercise 2.

Analyze the following propositions, according to the models : —

Brutus determined. George was conscious. Stars shine. Writers differ. Trees are plants. Virtue ennobles. Wisdom directs. Cæsar conquered. Kings reign. Richard was bold. Nero was cruel. Socrates was a philosopher. Night comes. Exercise strengthens. Serpents crawl. Winds blow. Eagles soar. Historians write. Boys play. Geography is interesting.

Exercise 3.*

Predicate ACTION (36, *a.*) *of the following subjects* : —

Horses, water, eagles, whales, quadrupeds, Columbus, Washington, father, mother, insects, wind, stars, children, fire, rain, leaves, grass, time, robbers, armies, moon, George, kings wasps, acorns.

Model. Horses *run*. Water *flows*.

Predicate QUALITY (36, *b.*) *of the following nouns* : —

Life, peaches, ice, play, arithmetic, cloth, chairs, money, health, intemperance, history, darkness, morning, wisdom.

---

* The pupil should write these and similar examples upon a slate or paper, drawing a line under the illustrative word, and placing a period (.) at the end of each proposition. The first word in each sentence should commence with a capital. The exercises, after being corrected, should be copied into a writing book

fruit, clothing, ink, grass, sky, cherries, silver, fruit, soldiers, labor, wool, Mary.

MODEL. Life *is short.* Peaches *are ripe.*

Predicate the CLASS *or* SPECIES (36, *c.*) *of the following subjects:* —

Henry, lemons, ducks, lilies, city, dogs, trouts, lions, lead, sheep, marbles, knives, air, Peter, Stephen, David.

MODEL. Henry *is a scholar.* Lemons *are fruit.*

Let the pupil select the subjects and predicates of each sentence from a paragraph in his reading lesson, and tell whether action, quality, or species, is predicated.

EXERCISE 4.

NOTE. Before performing this exercise, learn Lesson II. in the Appendix.

Analyze the following propositions, and tell which subjects are PROPER, *which are* COMMON, *and which are* COLLECTIVE, *nouns:* —

Alexander conquered. Zeno was a philosopher. Gray was a poet. Orders were issued. Snow falls. Temperance is a virtue. Waves dash. Darkness prevails. The army marched. The school was dismissed. The council was divided. Wrestling is dangerous. Lying is wicked. Charles reads. Age overtakes. Poets sing. Winds blow.

EXERCISE 5.

Write subjects to the following predicates: —

Proper Nouns. Is able; was prevented; believes; sings; dances; plays; is a merchant; is a teacher; is delighted; must come; is honorable; is faithful.

MODEL. *Samuel* is able.

Common Nouns. Run; is content; is laudable; is pleasant; is consumed; can live; write; are trees; are birds; are fishes; is desirable; is contemptible.

MODEL. *Horses* run.

Collective Nouns. Was divided; was convened; were pleased; was defeated; was dismissed.

MODEL. *The school* was divided.

NOTE. The pupil should review these exercises before commencing Section III. He should be required to point out the *nouns*, *verbs*, and *adjectives*, giving the class of each noun (See App. Les. II.)

SECTION III.

MODIFICATIONS OF THE SUBJECT.

40. Any change in the application of the subject, whether produced by altering the word which represents it, or by adding other words to it, is called a *modification* of the subject.

Although it is the principal office of the subject * to represent some person, thing, or some abstract idea, as the basis of an affirmation, yet the mechanism of language affords certain means by which its *application* may be so varied as to accommodate it to the existing state of the fact to be predicated.

The application of the subject may be varied,—

1st. By some change in the word which represents it; as, "The soldier perished;" "The soldiers perished;" the assertion in the first sentence applying to one person, that in the second to more than one;—

* *Subject* is derived from the Latin word *subjectus*, placed under, *i. e.*, as the foundation of the sentence

2d. By additional words; as, "*Ten* soldiers perished," "*Brave* soldiers perished." Here the subject, "soldiers," is restricted in its application to a certain number, (*ten*,) or to a certain class, (*brave*.)

NOTE. As this latter species of modification introduces a new element of the sentence, any further consideration of it must be deferred for the present.

41. When the application of the subject is varied by some change or inflection in the word which represents it, the modification is called an *accident*, or an *accidental property*; as, "brother, brothers;" "priest, priest*ess*;" "man, m*en*."

42. The accidental properties of the subject, or of the noun, in any relation, are *number*, *gender*, *person*, *case*.

(*a*.) These properties belong to the noun or pronoun, either as *subject*, (31,) *attribute*, (15,) or *object*, (117.)

(*b*.) The accidents of the subject are shown, — 1st. By a change of *form*; as, "bird, birds;" "hero, hero-*ine*;" — 2d. By a change of the *word itself*; as, "*He* sings," (when I speak *of* the singer;) "*You* sing," (when I speak *to* the singer;) "*I* sing," (when I am the singer;) — 3d. By a *prefix*: as, "a *he*-goat," "a *cock*-sparrow."

(*c*.) Some nouns admit of no inflection to denote a change in their application; as, *deer*, *sheep*, *vermin*.

I. — Number of the Subject.

43. The subject may represent *one* person or thing, or *more than one*, as acting; as, "The branch withered;" "The branch*es* withered."

44. There are two numbers, — the *singular* and the *plural*. The singular denotes but one object, the plural more than one.

(*a.*) Number is usually indicated by a change of form.

NOTE. For the formation of the plural, see App. Lesson III., which should be studied before attending to the following exercise.

EXERCISE 6.

Analyze the following examples, giving the number and class of each noun: —

Columbus sailed. Stars shine. James decreed. Cornwallis surrendered. Candia is an island. Socrates was poisoned. Lions roar. Grapes fall. Trees decay. Churches stand. Foxes are cunning. Weeds overrun Benjamin was seen. Silver shines. Pencils are used Washington was president. Kings are rulers. Eggs are broken. Vinegar is sour.

Write predicates to the plurals of the following nouns: —

Star, son, pipe, monarch, church, hero, fife, ox, cargo, ship, man, child, lily, wolf, wife, folio, muff, negro, sheep, mystery, vermin, lady, turkey, chief, hoof, mouse, goose, fly, box, day, duty.

MODEL. Stars *shine.* Sons *obey.*

II. — Gender of the Subject.

45. All animals of the same species are either male or female. From this distinction arises the grammatical accident *gender.*

46. Most nouns denoting the different relations among men, and those of the most common and useful animals, also indicate their sex; as, *father, mother; uncle, aunt; son, daughter; ram, ewe; cock hen.*

47. But, to those animals which are less useful, or are less observed by man, but one name is given for the male and female; as, *sparrow*, *mouse*, *pigeon*.

(*a.*) In such cases, the sex is usually determined by a prefix; as, *cock-sparrow*, *he-mouse*.

(*b.*) Some nouns denoting the mutual relations among men do not indicate sex; as, *parent*, *teacher*, *child*.

48. Inanimate objects are incapable of any such distinction as sex; yet the term *gender*, as a grammatical distinction, is applied to nouns denoting such objects.

49. There are, therefore, three distinctions called genders,—the *masculine*, the *feminine*, and the *neuter*.

(*a.*) Gender is indicated either by the *word itself*, by a *change* in the word, or by a *prefix* or *suffix*.

NOTE. The pupil should now study Lesson IV. in the Appendix.

EXERCISE 7.

Write subjects to the following predicates: —

Masculine Gender. Conquered; is wise; was detested, is a blacksmith; is discreet; are confiding; are discharged; is lame; are emigrating; is benevolent; is grateful; will devour; gnaw; will fight; complain; eat.

Feminine Gender. Is brooding; lowed; is playing; sings; is cheerful; rode; is a teacher; is practising; can dance; was injured; are anxious; are faithful; are chirping; are attentive.

Neuter Gender. Roll; grow; is solid; is deceptive; blows; shines; is falling; is a vegetable.

MODELS. *Alexander* conquered. *The hen* is brooding. *Stones* roll.

Analyze what you have written, telling the number and gender of each noun.

III. — Person of the Subject.

50. The *person* of the subject is that property which shows its relation to the speaker.

51. The speaker may sustain one of three relations to the subject; he may be himself the subject, he may speak *to* the subject, or he may speak *of* the subject. These relations are denominated the *first*, *second*, and *third* persons respectively; as, "*I* write;" "*You* write;" "*He* writes."

(*a.*) These relations are indicated by the word employed; as, *I*, *thou*, *he*. Hence any change in the relation is indicated by a change in the word; as, "*I* write," "*You* write."

52. To denote these three relations, a peculiar class of words is used, called *personal pronouns*.

(*a.*) These pronouns are not used simply to avoid repetition. The subject in the *first* and *second* persons must always be a pronoun. A noun cannot be employed. One would not be understood to speak of himself, if he should say, "Henry wrote:" he must say, "I wrote." We should say, for the second person, "You read," and not "Alexander reads." But in the third person, the name of the subject may be used, as, "Henry wrote," and, to avoid repetition, "He wrote."

(*b.*) These pronouns are called *personal*, because they are used to indicate the grammatical accident *person*. They show the relation of the subject to the speaker.

(*c.*) These pronouns are sometimes called *substantive*, because they may take the place of the noun in any of its relations; whereas the *relative pronoun* can never become the subject of a *sentence*, though it may be the subject of a dependent proposition hence the relative pronoun cannot be considered in this connection

53. The personal pronouns which may represent the subject are, —

First Person, . I, . . *singular.*
We, *plural.*
Second Person, Thou, (You,) *singular.*
Ye, You, . . . *plural.*
Third Person, . masculine, He,
feminine, . She, } *singular.* They, *plural.*
neuter, . . It,

Note. Study Lesson V. in Appendix, and then perform the following exercises: —

Exercise 8.

Analyze the following propositions, and give the person of each subject: —

I am well. You sit. We have come. He is delirious. Thou art the man. Wisdom is profitable. Paul preached. She is writing. It is true. They labor. Ye resist Boys play. Larks sing. Insects buzz.

Write subjects in the first, second, *and* third *persons respectively, to each of the following predicates, making such changes in them as may be necessary: —*

Is late; am exhausted; is plundering; is a pupil; might be educated; is affable; art content; play; sing; lead; is a mathematician; will be satisfied; can find; did defend; does reply.

Model. *We* are late. *Thou* art late. *He* is late.

IV. — Case of the Subject.

54. *Case* denotes the relation of a noun or pronoun to other words.

55. There are three cases, — the *nominative*, *possessive*, and *objective*.

56. The case of the *subject* denotes its relation to the predicate, and is always *nominative;* hence the following rule: —

RULE I. A noun or pronoun used as the *subject* of a proposition must be in the nominative case.

NOTE. The rules for construction will be given whenever the principles on which they are founded are developed. They should be strictly observed in writing sentences, and applied in parsing.

57. *Parsing* consists in naming a part of speech, giving its modifications, relation, agreement or dependence, and the rule for its construction. *Analysis* consists in pointing out the words or groups of words which constitute the elements (8) of a sentence. Analysis should precede parsing.

NOTE. Study Lesson VI. in the Appendix.

MODELS FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

2 *George writes.*

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.

George . . is the subject, because it is that of which the action "writes" is affirmed.

Writes . . is the predicate, because it is the action affirmed of "George."

George . . is a proper noun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, nominative case, and is the subject of the proposition, "George

writes;" according to Rule I., "A noun or pronoun used as the subject of a proposition must be in the nominative case."

3 *He is active.*

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.

He..... is a personal pronoun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, nominative case, and is the subject of the proposition, "He is active;" according to Rule I.

Exercise 9.

Analyze the following propositions, and parse the subjects:—

I am prepared. Jesus wept. Milo lifted. Money tempted. Rain descended. Abraham was faithful. Job was patient. Comets appear. Planets revolve. Solomon prayed. They will quarrel. He is ruined. David was king. We must study. England was invaded. William conquered. Harold was defeated. Exercise strengthens. Stealing is base. Thou art seated. She is coming. It rains. It snows. It lightens. You can sing. He is detestable. Fishes swim.

Write subjects to the following predicates:—

Is a monster; are coming; is burning; neigh; art wise; were handled; is numbered; is a giant; are reptiles; are vegetables; is a beverage; is impossible; will be defeated; paints; draws; is a conductor; dances.

Write ten entire sentences of your own, having only a subject and predicate; select also the subjects and predicates from ten sentences in your Reading Lesson.

SECTION IV.

MODIFICATIONS OF THE PREDICATE

58. Any change which varies the application or meaning of the predicate, whether produced by altering either of the words (copula or attribute) which represent it, or by adding other words to it, is called a *modification* of the predicate.

(*a.*) As it is the chief office of the subject to represent some person or thing as the basis of an affirmation, so it is the principal office of the predicate * to denote what is affirmed. But, like the subject, it can be made, by certain changes, to represent other properties not essential to it as predicate.

(*b.*) These changes are produced either by varying the form of the attribute (34) or copula, or by adding other words to one or both of them.

59. When the modification takes place by uniting two verbal forms, or by altering the form either of the copula or attribute, (41,) it is called an *accident* or an *accidental property* of the predicate; and the variation is called an *inflection.*

(*a.*) The verbs which unite with others to form the various modifications of the predicate, are called *auxiliaries.*

(*b.*) When the predicate is modified by the addition of any other word than an auxiliary verb, a new element of the sentence is introduced; as, "Birds fly *swiftly;*" "Edmund sold *oranges,*" (40, note.)

1.—*MODIFICATIONS OF THE PREDICATE-NOMINATIVE.*

60. When the attribute of the predicate (34) is a noun or pronoun, it may be varied, like the subject

* *Predicate*, from the Latin word *predicare*, to affirm, declare.

to denote *number*, *gender*, *person*, and *case*. (See Section III.) The following is the rule for the construction of the predicate-nominative: --

RULE II. A noun or pronoun used with the copula to form the *predicate*, must be in the nominative case.

(*a.*) When a noun or pronoun is thus used, it is called the *predicate-nominative*, to distinguish it from the subject-nominative. The predicate-nominative always denotes the same person or thing as the subject, and must agree with it in *case*. When the predicate-nominative denotes a person, it usually agrees with the subject in *gender*, *number*, and *case*.

(*b.*) By a peculiar idiom of the English language, the neuter pronoun *it*, as subject, may represent a noun or pronoun as predicate of any number, person, or gender; as, "It is I;" "It is they;" "It is James;" "It is she."

(*c.*) This rule applies when such verbs are used as are mentioned in 35, (*c.*)

MODELS FOR PARSING THE PREDICATE-NOMINATIVE

Gold is a metal.

(See Model for Analysis, p. 17.)

Metal is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, nominative case, and with "is" forms the predicate of the proposition, "Gold is a metal;" according to Rule II., "A noun or pronoun used with the copula to form the predicate, must be in the nominative case."

He is called a hero.

Hero is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, masc. gender, nominative case, and, with "is called," forms the predicate of the proposition, "He

is called a hero;" according to Rule II., "A noun or pronoun used with the copula to form the predicate, must be in the nominative case"

NOTE. Observe that this proposition has two attributes, *called* and *hero*, both of which, with *is*, constitute the predicate. (See 35, *c*.)

EXERCISE 10.

Analyze the following propositions, parsing the subjects and attributes: —

Demosthenes was an orator. I am he. It is I. It is Abraham. Horses are animals. He was considered a genius. She is a poetess. Madison was elected president. We are pupils. He is deemed a workman. They have become teachers. Borneo is an island. Algebra is a science. Air is a fluid. Water is a liquid. Oxygen is a gas. He appeared as* agent. He is regarded as a historian.

Write a subject and copula to each of the following nouns and pronouns taken as attributes: —

You, soldier, treatise, I, she, king, trees, vegetables, Andrew, Benjamin, animals, virtue, book, they, we, serpent, fish, insect, reptile, flower, plant, mineral, bay, harbor, planet, comet.

MODEL. *It is* you. *He was* a soldier.

II. — *MODIFICATIONS OF THE PREDICATE-ADJECTIVE.*

61. When the attribute of the predicate is an adjective, it may be varied to indicate, —

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* Sometimes *as*, denoting *office*, *capacity*, or *situation*, is used to connect a property (either predicated or assumed) with the word to which it belongs; as, "The moon *as* satellite attends;" "He was regarded *as* innocent."

(*a.*) That the subject possesses the quality denoted by the adjective in a higher or lower degree than some other person or thing with which it is compared; as, "Charity is greater than hope," "Charles is smaller than James;"—

(*b.*) That the subject possesses the quality denoted by the adjective in the highest or lowest degree, when considered in reference to all other objects with which it is compared; as, "The *greatest* of these [three] is charity."

NOTE. Instead of being compared with another person or thing, the subject may be compared with itself, since it may, at different times, or under different circumstances, possess a quality in different degrees; as, "His health is *better* to-day than it was yesterday."

62. The variation of the adjective to show different degrees of quality, is called *comparison.*

(*a.*) Comparison is indicated, — 1st. By changing the *form* of the adjective; as, *wise*, *wiser*, *wisest*; — 2d. By changing the *word;* as, *bad*, *worse*, *worst;* — 3d. By adding *other words;* as, *industrious*, more *industrious*, most *industrious.*

(*b.*) As comparison always requires an additional element of the sentence to complete the sense, the subject cannot be fully discussed in this connection.

NOTE. For the formation of the comparative degree, see Appendix, Lesson VII.

63. The degrees of comparison are, the *positive*, the *comparative*, and the *superlative.*

(*a.*) Comparison applies to the adjective, either as a predicated or an assumed property, (16.)

(*b.*) When the adjective is used to form the predicate, it is called the *predicate-adjective*, to distinguish it from the adjective when used as a modifier.

64. The predicate-adjective should be parsed by the following rule: —

RULE III. An adjective used with the copula to form the *predicate*, belongs to the subject.

(*a.*) In other languages, the relation of the adjective to the subject is indicated by an agreement in *number*, *gender* and *case*.

MODELS FOR PARSING THE PREDICATE-ADJECTIVE.

He is benevolent.

(Analyze according to the models, Sect. II.)

Benevolent is an adjective, of the positive degree, (compared, *benevolent*, *more benevolent*, *most benevolent*,) and forms with "is" the predicate of the proposition, "He is benevolent." It belongs to "*he*," according to Rule III., "An adjective used with the copula to form the predicate, belongs to the subject."

Richard is older [*than John.*]*

Older . . . is an adjective, of the comparative degree, (compared, *old*, *older*, *oldest*,) and forms with "is" the predicate of the proposition, "Richard is older." It belongs to the subject, according to Rule III.

Achilles was the bravest [*of the Greeks.*]

Bravest . . is an adjective, of the superlative degree, (compared, *brave*, *braver*, *bravest*.) and forms with "was" the predicate of the proposition, "Achilles was," &c. It belongs to "Achilles," according to Rule III.

* The words in the brackets should be omitted in analyzing, as the pupil is not prepared to explain them, (62, *b.*)

Exercise 11.

Analyze the following examples, and parse the adjectives: —

Washington was wise. The country is free. The furniture is old. The child is weak. The wind is cold. The ice is thin. The water is deep. The soil is rich. The boards are rough. The general is brave. Edward is sick. Life is short. The streets are wide. The dog is faithful. George is industrious. The constable is active. Gold is precious. Diamonds are combustible. The sun is brilliant. The days are long.

Write predicate-adjectives to complete the following: —

Jonas is. The moon is. The ocean is. Truth is. He is. Washington was. Arnold was. Flowers are. I am. Ice is. Roses are.

Model. Jonas is *sick*.

Write a subject and copula to each of the following adjectives used as predicates: —

Handsome, powerful, awful, warm, mild, gentle, able, sad, mournful, judicious, wise, discreet, unsuccessful, kind.

Model. *The horses are* handsome.

Write ten sentences of your own, using a predicate-adjective.

III.—*MODIFICATIONS OF THE VERB.*

65. The verb (except "to be") includes both the copula and attribute, whether separate, as, "Flowers *are blooming*," or combined, as, "Flowers *bloom*."

(*a.*) The verbal attribute, when separated from the copula, is a kind of adjective. It partakes of the properties both of the

adjective and verb, and is hence called a *participle*. Like the adjective, it denotes some property of a noun. It may represent either an *assumed* or *predicated* property; as, "Horses *running*;" "Horses are *running*." It relates to the noun in the same manner as the adjective, (64.) But, on the other hand, unlike the adjective, it expresses action; it may be blended with the copula, and form the predicate, (24;) it may, like the verb, represent the different conditions of the action, and may receive the same limitations by additional words as the verb does.

(*b.*) The copula and participle, when distinct, constitute a peculiar form of the verb, called the *progressive form*.

66. Verbs are divided into *regular* and *irregular*, *transitive* and *intransitive*. The first distinction has reference to their *form*; the second, to their *use*.

NOTE. For further particulars respecting the classes of verbs, see Appendix, Lesson VIII.

67. The accidents of the verb are *number*, *person*, *mode*, and *tense*. They show a relation both to the subject and the speaker.

Number and Person of the Verb.

68. The number and person of the verb are properties which show its agreement with the subject. Like the subject, the verb has two numbers and three persons.

(*a.*) Number and person are not so distinctly marked in English as in most other languages.

(*b.*) Both number and person, so far as shown at all by the verb itself, are indicated by a change of *form*.

EXAMPLES.

Singular.		*Plural.*	
First Person,	I *am*;	First Person,	We *are*;
Second Person,	Thou *art*;	Second Person,	You *are*;
Third Person,	He *is*.	Third Person,	They *are*.

69. The following is the rule for the construction of the verb: —

RULE IV. The *verb* must agree with its subject in number and person.

(*a.*) This rule applies to the copula when distinct from the attribute, or to the verb when both are united; as, "Thou *art* sleeping;" "Thou sleep*est*."

NOTE. Observe that the form *art* indicates the number and person, precisely in the same way as does the termination *est*.

(*b.*) To this rule there properly is no exception. There is, however, an apparent exception in the case of collective nouns, which, in the singular number, may take a verb in the plural. If, in using such a noun, reference is had to the individuals forming the collection, the verb should always be plural; otherwise it should be singular.

NOTE. Study Lesson IX., in the Appendix.

EXERCISE 12.

Analyze the following sentences, giving the number and person of each verb: —

I write. He speaks. We say. They are riding. She is painting. You intimate. Thou thinkest. Gibbon narrated. Francis drives. Plants thrive. Trees grow. Friends advise. Teachers direct. It rains. They run. Stars shine.

Write each of these sentences, separating the copula from the attribute: —

MODEL. I *am writing.*

Write subjects to the following verbs, taking care to use the right number and person: —

Sleeps, consent, chatters, walkest, are studying, command, preach, whistle, delays, abides, live, beseech, be

tray, consignest, disfigure, is contriving, was finishing, art spinning, mayst stop, does deliberate, wilt stay.

MODEL. *Susan* sleeps. *We* consent.

Correct the following sentences: —

James think. I readest. We speaks. You writes. Henry recitest. She complain. They viewedst. Thou is learning. We art ready. Some says. He lead. George art weeping.

MODEL. James *thinks*. *James think* is incorrect, because *think* does not agree with *James* in number, according to Rule IV.

Mode of the Verb.

70. Mode shows the *manner* in which the attribute is asserted of the subject.

(*a.*) Mode relates to the manner of the *assertion*, not to that of the thing asserted, and therefore affects the copula rather than the attribute. Hence, when a verb contains the copula and attribute united, mode should be regarded as affecting the *assertion*, and not the *action*. The manner of the *action* is determined by additional words, as will be shown in a subsequent section.

(*b.*) *Assert*, in this connection, is used in opposition to *assume*, (see 16, *a.*) It applies to all cases in which an attribute is connected with a subject by the copula, whatever may be the particular mode of connection.

71. An attribute may be connected with the subject so as to show that it *actually* exists as a property of the subject; as, "James *is* rich."

(*a.*) When a property does *not actually* exist in the subject, its absence is declared in a similar manner; as, "James is *not* rich."

(*b.*) A property may exist in the subject, and the speaker may be ignorant of it. He can then *inquire* after its existence as something *actual*; as. "Is James rich?"

NOTE. *Actuality* is the idea which is common to these three cases.

72. An attribute may be connected with the subject, so as to show not that it really exists in it, but that such an existence is *possible*, *probable*, *necessary*, or *obligatory ;* as, "James *may be rich*, — *can be rich*, — *must be rich.*"

(*a.*) Here, again, the *possibility* or *necessity* may be denied or inquired for; as, "James *cannot*, *must not*, *may not* be rich;" "*Can*, *may*, or *must* James be rich?"

NOTE. The idea of *possibility*, *liberty*, *power*, *necessity*, or *obligation*, is the peculiarity of these forms of the verb.

73. An attribute may be connected with the subject so as to show, not actuality or possibility, simply, but a *mere conception* of something *doubtful* or *conditional;* as, "should virtue become vice;" "if it rains;" "were he wrong."

NOTE. *Conditionality* is the peculiarity of this form.

74. An attribute may be connected with the subject so as to show that its existence as a property of the subject is *commanded*, *exhorted*, or *entreated ;* as, "Be rich;" "Be [thou] kind;" "Go;" "Sit."

NOTE. This form of the verb represents our *desires.*

75. An attribute may be stated abstractly, having no connection with a subject; as, "to be rich;" "to write;" "being rich;" "writing."

76. These various forms of the verb are classified by grammarians under five divisions, called *modes ;* —

The *indicative*, which represents what is *actual ;* —

The *potential*, which represents what *may*, *can* or *must be*; —

The *subjunctive*, which represents what is *conditional*; —

The *imperative*, which *commands*, *exhorts*, *entreats*; —

The *infinitive*, which represents an attribute *abstractly*.

77. The infinitive and participle are *forms* of the verb, but not strictly *modes*. (See 70.)

(*a*.) The infinitive may be regarded as a verbal *noun*, and the participles as verbal *adjectives*. (For the classes and forms of the participle, see Appendix.)

(*b*.) Mode is indicated chiefly by auxiliary verbs, (59, *a*.)

(*c*.) The subjunctive and infinitive modes are used only as subordinate parts of a sentence, and cannot, therefore, be discussed here.

NOTE. Study Lesson X., in the Appendix.

EXERCISE 13.

Analyze the following propositions, giving the mode of each verb. Give also the number and person, according to Rule IV.

The scales were turned. Charles was abandoned. The count was seized. We can dance. You may study. He is silent. Arthur was murdered. Stop. Stand still. Be careful. Be attentive. James was anxious. Truth is mighty. Wisdom exalts. Clouds overhang. Thunder roars. The lightning is vivid. Be wise. Awake. He may go. Study. You must write. Be gone. Arnold was a traitor. Esau was hated. It may rain. The clock strikes. The wind may rise. The storm may abate.

Write predicates to the following subjects : —

Indicative Mode. Besiegers, Swedes, French, Bonaparte, procession, ladies, enemy, skill, emperor, he, it, government, conventions, war.

MODEL. The besiegers *were repulsed.*

Potential Mode. Fleet, column, congress, boys, sugar, toys, books, slates, ink, virtue, temperance, education, duty, mischief.

MODEL. The fleet *may be overtaken.* A column *must be erected.*

Convert the following infinitives into the imperative mode : —

To write ; to study ; to play ; to sing ; to read ; to begin ; to delay ; to be active ; to be true ; to labor ; to travel ; to be acquitted ; to indicate ; to be happy ; to leave ; to wash ; to strike ; to love.

MODEL. *Write*, or *Write thou.*

NOTE. The subject comes after the verb in the imperative mode, and is usually omitted.

Change the modes in your written examples, — the indicative to the potential, the potential to the indicative, and so on.

MODEL. The besiegers *were* repulsed. The besiegers *might be* repulsed. *Be* ye *repulsed.* *To be repulsed.*

Tense of the Verb.

78. Tense denotes the *time* of an action or event. It may be either *past*, *present*, or *future.*

(*a.*) Since time, considered absolutely, is an unbroken succession of instants, we can speak of an event as *past*, *present*,

future, only in relation to some point to which all others are referred. The point assumed for this purpose is the time when the action or event is mentioned, that is, *spoken* or *written*, and is called the *time of the speaker;* as, "Columbus sailed; (1846 being the *time of the speaker*, and 1492 being the *time of the event*.)

(*b*.) There are, therefore, two points of time to be considered in the simplest form of the verb, — the time of the speaker, and the time of the event. The time of the event may be *simultaneous with* that of the speaker; as, "Edward writes." It is then called the *present*. The time of the event may be *antecedent to* that of the speaker; as, "Edward wrote." It is then called the *past*. The time of the event may be *subsequent to* the time of the speaker; as, "Edward will write." It is then called the *future*.

79. When a tense is simply *past*, *present*, or *future*, without any other limitation, it is called an *absolute tense;* as, "I sing," "I sang," "I shall sing."

(*a*.) Besides relating to the time of the speaker, an event may be referred to another time *specified* in the sentence; as, "Edward was writing *at noon*." Here the act of writing is *antecedent* to the time of the speaker, but *simultaneous with* a specified time, "*at noon*."

(*b*.) As in the first relation, so in this, the time of an event may be *simutaneous with*, *antecedent to*, or *subsequent to*, the *specified* time.

(*c*.) This double relation of the tenses will be best exhibited to the eye by the following table: —

Point assumed.	*Event.*	1st Rel.	*Point specified.*	2d Rel.
Time of the Speaker.	Edward was writing,	(*ante.*)	before noon,	(*ante.*)
			at noon,	(*simul.*)
			after noon,	(*subse.*)
	Edward is writing,	(*simul.*)	before noon,	(*ante.*)
			at noon,	(*simul.*)
			after noon,	(*subse.*)
	Edward will be writing,	(*subs.*)	before noon,	(*ante.*)
			at noon,	(*simul.*)
			after noon,	(*subse.*)

NOTE. The *event* is referred to the points mentioned on the right and left of it; thus, "was writing" is antecedent to the

point assumed, (the time of the speaker,) but may be either antecedent to, simultaneous with, or subsequent to, the point specified, (before, at, after noon.)

80. When a tense refers to a time specified in the sentence, it is called a *relative tense;* as, "Edward had written *before night;*" "Edward will have written *before noon.*'

(*a*) Relative tenses require an additional element of the sentence, and therefore cannot be fully discussed in this connection

(*b.*) Some tenses are always relative; as, "The ship had sailed *before the stage arrived.*" Others may be either absolute or relative; as, "He wrote;" "He wrote in the morning."

81. Each general division of time has two tenses, — one *absolute,* and one *relative;* as, "I love," "I have loved;" "I loved," "I had loved;" "I shall love," "I shall have loved."

(*a.*) Each absolute tense may be regarded as the present of its division; as, "I study," (pres. of the pres.;) "I studied," (pres. of the past;) "I shall study" (pres. of the future.) In the same manner, each relative tense may be regarded as the perfect of its present; as, "I have studied," (perf. of "I study;") "I had studied," (perf. of "I studied;") "I shall have studied," (perf. of "I shall study.")

(*b.*) Each perfect tense denotes the completion of an act in the time to which it refers, that is, its present.

82. There are, therefore, six tenses, — three absolute, (the *present,* the *past,* and the *future,*) and three relative, (the *present perfect,* the *past perfect,* and the *future perfect.*) They may be thus exhibited: —

I. *Pres.* { The *Present Tense,* which denotes present time. The *Present Perfect Tense,* which denotes a past time completed in the present.

II. *Past.* { The *Past Tense*, which denotes past time. / The *Past Perfect Tense*, which denotes past time completed in the past.

III. *Fut.* { The *Future Tense*, which denotes future time. / The *Future Perfect Tense*, which denotes a future time completed in the future.

(*a*) The *future perfect* relates, 1st, to another future time, and 2d, through that, to the time of the speaker. So the past perfect relates 1st, to another past time, and 2d, through that, to the time of the speaker. But the *present perfect* relates to the present time, and, *simultaneous with* it, to the time of the speaker. Hence, the *present perfect* has but one point of reference, since the present time and the time of the speaker are the same. On this account, the present perfect loses one important feature of a relative tense, namely, two *different* points of reference. Its relation to the present is, however, precisely like that of the past perfect to the past, or the future perfect to the future.

83. The *absolute* tenses (except the future) may have three *forms*; — the *common*, which represents a customary act with indefinite time; the *progressive*, which represents an unfinished act with definite time; the *emphatic*, which represents an act repeated, or stated with emphasis; it is also used in interrogative sentences. The relative tenses have two forms, — the *common* and the *progressive*.

84. The indicative mode has six tenses.

EXAMPLES OF THE ABSOLUTE TENSES.

I. *Pres.* { I write, (*common form.*) / I am writing, (*progressive form.*) / I do write, (*emphatic form.*)

II. *Past.* { I wrote, (*common.*) / I was writing, (*progressive.*) / I did write. (*emphatic.*)

III. *Fut.* { I shall write, (*common.*)
I shall be writing, (*progressive.*)

EXAMPLES OF THE RELATIVE TENSES.

I. *Pres. P.* { I have written, (*common.*)
I have been writing, (*progressive.*)

ast. P. { I had written, (*common.*,
I had been writing, (*progressive.*)

t. P. { I shall have written, (*common.*)
I shall have been writing, (*progressive.*

(*a.*) The emphatic form is confined to the indicative and im* rative modes; and the progressive and emphatic, to the active voice.

NOTE. Study Lesson XI., in the Appendix.

85. The potential mode has four tenses, each having two forms.

EXAMPLES.

Divisions.	*Tenses.*	*Forms.*
I. *Pres.*	*Pres. Tense.*	I may, can, *or* must write, (*common form.*)
		I may, can, *or* must be writing, (*progressive form.*)
	Pres. Perf.	I may, can, *or* must have written, (*common form.*)
		I may, can, *or* must have been writing, (*progressive form.*)
II. *Past.*	*Past Tense.*	I might, could, would, *or* should write, (*common form.*)
		I might, could, would, *or* should be writing, (*progressive form.*)
	Past Perf.	I might, could, would, *or* should have written. (*common form.*)
		I might, could, would, *or* should have been writing. (*prog. form.*)

86. Since the subjunctive is nothing more than the indicative or potential, under the influence of some particle denoting condition, (*if*, *though*, *unless*, &c.,) it has the same tenses as the mode from which it is derived

87. The imperative has but one tense, with three forms.

EXAMPLES.

Pres. Tense. { Write, (*common form.*)
Be thou writing, (*progressive form.*)
Do thou write, (*emphatic form.*)

88. The infinitive has two tenses, each having two forms.

EXAMPLES.

Division.	*Tenses.*	*Forms.*
I. *Pres.*	*Pres. Tense.*	To write, (*common form.*)
		To be writing, (*progressive form.*)
	Pres. Perf.	To have written, (*common form.*)
		To have been writing, (*progressive form.*)

89. The participle has three forms.

EXAMPLES.

Present. . . . Writing.
Past. . . . . . Written.
Perfect. . . . Having written.

(*a.*) Analogy would seem to require the following arrangement of the participles: —

I. *Pres.* { *Pres. Tense.* . . . Writing.
Pres. Perf. . . . . Having written
I. *Past.* { *Past Tense.* . . . . Written
Past Perf. . . . . . ——

NOTE. The pupil should now study the several lessons on the verb found in the Appendix. He should then carefully perform the following exercises: —

MODELS FOR PARSING THE VERB.

Analyze the sentences according to the models, Sec. II.

The boy is diligent.

Is . . . . . is an irregular intransitive verb, (principal parts, *be*, *was*, *been*,) in the indicative mode, present tense, third person, singular number, and agrees with its subject, "boy;" according to Rule IV., "The verb must agree," &c.

James should have come.

Should have come is an irregular intransitive verb, in the potential mode, past perfect tense, third person, singular number, and agrees with its subject, "James;" according to Rule IV.

Depart.

Depart . . . . . is a regular intransitive verb, in the imperative mode, present tense, second person, singular number, and agrees with *thou* understood;* according to Rule IV

Children should obey their parents.

Should obey . . . . is a regular transitive verb, (principal parts, *obey*, *obeyed*, *obeyed*,) active voice,

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* When the subject, or any other part of a proposition, is omitted, it is said to be understood.

potential mode, past tense,* third person, plural number, and agrees with its subject, "children;" according to Rule IV.

NOTE. The relation of the transitive verb to its object will be fully explained in a subsequent section.

He is deceived.

Is deceived . . . . . is a regular passive verb, (transitive verb, passive voice,) (principal parts, *deceive*, *deceived*, *deceived*,) in the indicative mode, present tense, third person, singular number, and agrees with its subject, "he;" according to Rule IV.

NOTE. The uses of the *subjunctive*, *infinitive*, and the participles, will be explained hereafter.

EXERCISE 14.

Write subjects to the following verbs: —

Teach, instruct, learn, speak, say, utter, weep, lament rejoice, bloom, laugh, move, bring, obey, try, bite, dance fight, praise, censure, adorn, wound, punish, devour, croak, whistle, amuse, disturb, be committed.

Let the first twelve be in the indicative mode, two in each tense.

MODEL.

Pres. { John *teaches.* / James *instructs.* } *Past Tense.* { He *learned.* / We *spoke.* }

Let the next twelve be in the potential mode, three in each tense. (See model above.) —*Write the remainder in the imperative mode.* — *Give the infinitive and participles to ten of the above verbs.*

* More properly, "should obey" denotes a universal obligation, without reference to time.

Exercise 15. — Miscellaneous.

Analyze and parse the following sentences, applying the four rules which are used in the construction of the subject and predicate. (See the preceding models for analyzing and parsing.)

John was a disciple. Jesus was betrayed. David is called the psalmist. You can learn. He will be writing. He had been defeated. Stop. Be active. Become a soldier. They should be industrious. He might have been captured. George may have returned. Do be still Henry will have been planting. I spoke. Do stay.

Note. If the preceding exercises should not be sufficient to make the pupil perfectly familiar with the properties and construction of the subject and predicate, they should be multiplied, at the discretion of the teacher. It is all important that these two elements of the sentence be perfectly understood before proceeding farther.

SECTION V.

THE ADJECTIVE ELEMENT. — FIRST SUBORDINATE ELEMENT.

90. It has been seen, (Sec. III.) that the subject is susceptible of certain inflections, (41,) which indicate its *number*, *person*, and *gender*. These changes are properly called *modifications of the subject*, since they restrict its application to some person or thing affected by one or more of these properties.

91. It is often necessary to restrict the application of the subject, by referring to *other properties* which cannot be indicated by inflection. The method pursued in all languages is the same, namely, to add to the subject such word or words as shall designate the property required; as, "Birds fly;" "*Black* birds fly;" "*Canary* birds fly;" "*Large* birds fly."

(*a.*) Some nouns are sufficiently definite without additional words; such as proper nouns, — *William*, *Philadelphia;* many of the abstract nouns, — *goodness*, *virtue*, *vice;* many nouns denoting *substance*, — as, *grass*, *wood.*

(*b.*) Pronouns being used to denote the relation of the subject to the speaker, or referring to nouns which have before been introduced and sufficiently limited, seldom receive additional words.

92. All such additional words are called *modifiers*, because they *modify*, *limit*, or *restrict*, the application of the subject.

93. The modifiers of the subject, or of the noun in any of its relations, form a new element of the sentence, called the *adjective element.*

94. The subject considered apart from the adjective element, is called the *grammatical* subject, or simply the *subject.*

95. The subject taken with the words which limit it, is called the *complex* or *logical* subject.

(*a.*) The adjective element generally answers the questions, *What? What kind? How many? Whose?*

96. All modifiers of the subject, or of the noun in any of its relations, are used to restrict its *application.* This may be done, —

(*a.*) Without affecting any of its *properties;* as, "*two* men;" "*these* men;" —

(*b.*) By designating some *property;* as, "*good* men;" —

(*c.*) By *identifying* it; as, "Paul *the apostle;*" "Peter *the hermit;*" —

(*d.*) By representing it as an object *possessed;* as, "*David's* harp."

97. The first two limitations are effected by *adjective words;* the second two, by *nouns* or *pronouns.*

I. — *ADJECTIVE WORDS.*

98. All adjective words (articles, adjectives, and participles) are divided into two classes, — *limiting* and *qualifying.*

99. *Limiting* adjectives are used to restrict the application of the noun, without expressing any of its properties; as, "*ten* commandments;" "*each* lesson."

100. *Qualifying* adjectives are used to restrict the application of the noun to a class of objects which possess a certain *property* in common; as, "*good* men;" "*idle* boys;" "*tall* trees."

(*a.*) An unlimited noun is taken in the widest extent of its application; as, "Horses run." Here "horses" applies to the whole race, and embraces every possible property of the horse. A noun is said to be limited in the extent of its application when the *number* of individuals included in it is diminished. Thus "horses" embraces a greater number of individuals than "sixty horses" or "white horses." "Sixty" excludes all above that number, but may include those of any description whatever; whereas "white" excludes all of any other color, and embraces those only which possess that property in common.

101. Among limiting adjectives are reckoned the *article*, *pronominal adjectives*, *numerals*, and those which express some *circumstance of place, time, cause*, or *manner*.

NOTE. See Appendix, Lesson VII.

EXERCISE 16.

Apply limiting adjectives to the subjects of the following sentences: —

Horse neighs. Arts are improved. Citizens complain. Business is completed. Soldier stood. Dog ran. Cloud is black. Hen is dead. Duck swam. Storm did abate. Wind blew. Rain fell. Men were captured. Walk was taken. Book is useful. Houses are built. Ride is pleasant.

MODEL. *That* horse neighs.

Write twelve entire sentences, applying limiting adjectives to the subjects.

102. Among *qualifying* adjectives are reckoned, 1st, all those adjectives which express any property of the noun; and 2d, the several participles.

(*a.*) A qualifying adjective or participle is an *attribute*, (16.) It is said to be used as a *modifier* when it is assumed of a noun, as a *predicate* when it is affirmed of it.

(*b.*) A limiting adjective does not properly express any attribute of the noun, and consequently is seldom compared or used as a predicate.

NOTE. Study Lesson VII., in the Appendix, and then perform the following exercise: —

EXERCISE 17.

Apply qualifying adjectives to the subjects of the following propositions: —

Maxim is given. Scriptures teach. Men desire. Reproof hardens. Habits should be avoided. Counsels were given. Character shines. Cottage stood.

Write predicates to the following subjects, limiting each subject by some qualifying adjective or participle: —

Lady, paper, lord, cousin, light, darkness, ambassador, army, commissioner, tiger, traitor, tutor, pupil, window, cellar, chamber, chancellor, monk, friar, countess.

MODEL. The *good* lady *assisted.*

Write subjects to the following predicates, and let each be limited by a limiting and a qualifying adjective.

Was prepared; was made; was served up; had scattered; is desirable; were tamed; is delightful; had arrived; can jump; might have slept; did eat; could fight; was avoided; could have been stopped; may be upset; was emptied; sailed; was prostrated.

MODEL. *That sumptuous feast* was prepared.

103. Adjectives used as modifiers should be parsed by the following rule. (See Rule III.)

RULE V. An adjective or participle used as a *modifier*, belongs to the noun or pronoun which it limits.

MODELS FOR ANALYZING AND PARSING.

Tall oaks bend.

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition, (27.)

Oaks..... is the subject, because it is that of which the action "bend" is affirmed.

Bend . . . . . is the predicate, because it is the action affirmed of "oaks."

Oaks (the subject) is limited by "tall," an *adjective* element of the first class, denoting the kind (*tall*) of oak.

Tall oaks . . . . . is the complex subject.

Tall . . . . . is a qualifying adjective, of the positive degree, (compared, *tall*, *taller*, *tallest*,) and is used as a modifier of the subject; according to Rule V., "An adjective or participle used as a modifier, belongs to the noun or pronoun which it limits."

This truth is clear.

NOTE. Analyze as in the previous example.

This . . . . . is a limiting adjective, (not compared,) and is a modifier of the subject; according to Rule V.

NOTE. *Clear* is also an adjective, but it is used as the predicate of the proposition, (not a modifier,) and is parsed by Rule III

Bengal tigers are ferocious.

Bengal . . . . . is a limiting adjective, denoting place, (not compared,) and is used as a modifier of the subject; according to Rule V.

EXERCISE 18.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the adjectives: —

Subsequent voyages were made. The third expedition was unfortunate. Severe laws were passed. These inscriptions were copied. Modern history should be studied

An erroneous opinion prevailed. A republican government was established. Thirty men were captured.

II.—*NOUNS OR PRONOUNS.*

104. The subject may be limited by a noun or pronoun used to explain it by designating its *office*, *rank*, *character*, or otherwise *identifying it*; as, "Peter the *hermit* preached the first crusade."

(*a.*) The limiting noun or pronoun must represent the same person or thing as the limited noun.

(*b.*) The limiting noun denotes some property (*office*, *rank*, &c.) of the subject, and is here used as an *assumed* property, corresponding to the predicate-nominative, just as the adjective or participle, denoting an assumed property, corresponds to the predicate-adjective or participle.

105. A noun or pronoun thus used is said to be in apposition with the noun which it limits, and is to be parsed by the following rule: —

RULE VI. A noun or pronoun used to *identify* another noun or pronoun, is put by apposition in the same case; as, "His brother *George* was absent."

(*a.*) When the limiting noun denotes a person, it generally agrees with the limited, in *number*, *gender*, and *case*. (60, *a.*)

MODEL FOR ANALYZING AND PARSING.

King Charles was beheaded.

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.

King . . . . . is the subject.*

* The definitions may be omitted when the pupil becomes familiar with them.

Was beheaded is the predicate.

King . . . . . is limited by "Charles," an adjective element of the first class, used to identify the "king." "King Charles" is the complex subject.

Charles . . . . . is a proper noun, of the third person, singular number, nominative case, and is used to identify "king;" according to Rule VI., "A noun or pronoun," &c. (See 105, *a.*)

Exercise 19.

Analyze the following sentences, parsing the nouns in apposition: —

The patriarch Abraham was accounted faithful. Paul the apostle was a martyr. The emperor Nero was a cruel tyrant. Milton the poet was blind. The disciple John was beloved. The martyr Stephen was stoned. The great navigator Columbus was maltreated. Henry the scholar was crowned king.

Write twelve sentences limiting the subject by a noun in apposition.

Note. Let the pupil review the declension of nouns and personal pronouns, (Lesson III., in the Appendix.)

106. The subject may be limited by a noun or pronoun which represents it as an object of possession; as, "*Henry's* book fell."

(*a.*) This relation does not always denote possession. It may denote the relation of persons; as, "William's cousin;" — or the relation of the *doer* to the *thing done;* as, "Solomon's Temple;" — or the relation of a *whole* to its *parts;* as, "a horse's head;" "the dog's foot"

(*b.*) The possessive pronouns *mine*, *thine*, *his*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, and *theirs*, are used as nouns, and hence may be employed as

predicates, when we wish to *affirm* (not assume) possession; as, "The book is *mine*;" "The pen is *yours*."

107. A noun or pronoun thus used to limit the subject is parsed by the following rule: —

RULE VII. A noun or pronoun used to limit another noun by denoting *possession*, must be in the possessive case; as, "*Stephen's* courage failed."

MODEL FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

His hand trembles.

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.

Hand . . . is the subject. (Why?)

Trembles is the predicate. (Why?)

His hand is the complex subject. (Why?)

Hand . . is limited by "his," an adjective element of the first class, denoting *whose hand.*

His . . . . is a personal pronoun, third person, singular number, possessive case, and is the modifier of "hand;" according to Rule VII.

EXERCISE 20.

Analyze the following sentences, parsing the modifier of the subject: —

The rook's nest was destroyed. The bird's beak was broken. Our lesson is easy. My task is completed. William's farm is productive. Rufus's garden is watered.

Write twelve sentences limiting the subject by a noun or pronoun in the possessive case.

108. The adjective element, by an ellipsis of the noun to which it belongs, often becomes the sub-

ject of the proposition; as, "The *good* may err;" "*This* is the book;" "*Many* will be disappointed."

(*a.*) In such cases, the adjective is said to be used as a noun, (33, *a.*) Thus, in the first example above, "good" is an adjective used as a noun, third person, plural number, &c., and is the subject of "may err." *Let the pupil write examples of this kind*

Exercise 21.

Analyze and parse the following miscellaneous examples: —

Three birds flew. The man awoke. Good food was provided. Every soldier escaped. All men are mortal. Twenty days have passed. Your lesson is easy. Wisdom's ways are pleasant. The king's council might have been able. John the Baptist was beheaded. The planet Venus has risen. Sirius, the dog-star, is visible. Boston, the capital, is populous. The goddess Discord was offended. Beautiful plants were sold. Old iron is wanted. Becket, the archbishop, was considered a martyr. The east wind is disagreeable. A winter scene was represented. A sun-burnt urchin came in. The merry dance commenced.

Write twenty sentences illustrating the four kinds of modifiers. (96, *a, b, c, d.*)

SECTION VI.

THE OBJECTIVE ELEMENT.—SECOND SUBORDINATE ELEMENT.

109. By certain inflections (Section IV.) the predicate can be made to indicate properties not

essential to it as predicate. These are called *modifications of the predicate*, because they restrict its application to a certain *time* or in a certain *manner*.

110. When it is necessary to restrict the application of the predicate by referring to properties which cannot be indicated by inflections, other words (as with the subject) must be added.

111. All such words are called *modifiers* of the predicate, (92.)

112. The predicate, considered apart from the words that limit it, is called the *grammatical predicate*, or simply the *predicate*.

113. When taken in connection with the words which limit it, it is called the *complex* or *logical predicate*.

114. When the predicate is a noun, (36, 60,) it may be limited, like the subject, by an *adjective element*, (see Section V.;) as, "Francis is an *industrious* boy."

NOTE. Let the pupil write examples modifying the predicate nominative by either of the four species of modifiers mentioned in the last section. This construction will need no further illustration.

115. When the predicate is an adjective, it may be limited by an *adverbial element;* as, "He was awake *early*."

NOTE. This element will be treated of in the next section.

116. When the predicate is a verb, it may be limited either by an *adverbial* or an *objective* element, or both; as, "The boy studied his *lesson carefully*."

I.—*SINGLE OBJECT.*

117. The objective element is that which is used to complete the meaning of a transitive verb. (see Appendix;) as, "He opened (what?) *a book*, —*a knife*, —*the door*, —*his hand*, —*his eyes*," &c.

118. The objective element becomes the subject when the transitive verb assumes the *passive form*; as, "Henry struck *William*;" "*William* was struck by Henry."

(*a.*) The objective element answers the question *Whom?* or *What?* as, "He loves (whom?) *George;*" "They broke (what?) the *ice*."

(*b.*) The noun or pronoun used as the object has the same modifications (Sec. III.) of number, gender, and person, as the subject.

119. The following rule should be applied in parsing the object:—

RULE VIII. A noun or pronoun used as the *object* of a transitive verb or its participles, must be in the objective case; as, "We paid *him*."

NOTE. Review the declension of nouns and personal pronouns, Appendix, Lesson III.

MODEL FOR ANALYZING AND PARSING.

Cæsar defeated Pompey.

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.

Cæsar . . . . . is the subject.

Defeated . . . . . is the predicate.

Defeated . . . . . is limited by "Pompey," an objective ele-

ment of the first class, denoting *whom* Cæsar defeated.

Defeated Pompey is the complex predicate.

Pompey . . . . . is a proper noun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, objective case, and is the object of "defeated:" according to Rule VIII.

Exercise 22.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the object: —

Brutus killed Cæsar. Heat overcomes me. The dog pursued a fox. The lion ate a sheep. He views the stars. We built a house. The ink soils the carpet. Josephus wrote a history. William conquered England. Alfred defeated the Danes. Bring a book. Repeat the lesson. He might have been leading the army.

Write subjects and objects to the following verbs: —

Lead, praise, restrain, know, fear, see, love, admonish, bring, correct, frighten, pursue, break, torment, perplex, annoy, betray, sing, open, displace, equip, defend, punish, leave, desire.

Change the verbs of your written sentences from the active to the passive form.

Model. *Abraham* led *Isaac*. *Isaac was led by Abraham.*

II. — *DOUBLE OBJECT.*

Object and Attribute.

120. Some verbs are followed by two objects, — one denoting some *person* or *thing*, and the other

some *attribute* (15) of it; as, "They a$_1$ pointed *him president.*"

(*a.*) "President" is an attribute of "him," denoting *office.* (See note at the bottom of page 17.)

121. Instead of a substantive, an *adjective* or *verbal* attribute may follow the object of such verbs.

EXAMPLES.

They made the man { an officer,. . (*substantive attribute.*) / jealous, . . . (*adjective attribute.*) / labor,* . . . . (*verbal attribute.*)

122. When such verbs assume the passive form, the object generally becomes the subject, and the attribute remains as a predicate.

EXAMPLES.

The man was made { an officer,. . (*substantive attribute.*) / jealous,. . . . (*adjective attribute.*) / to labor, . . . (*verbal attribute.*)

(*a.*) It not unfrequently happens, however, that the attribute, or second object, becomes the subject; as, "*An officer* was made *of the man.*"

(*b.*) A few verbs only can take, besides an object, a *substantive* attribute in the objective. These are, *make*, *appoint*, *elect*, *create*, *constitute*, *render*, *name*, *style*, *call*, *esteem*, *think*, *consider*, *regard*, *reckon*, and some others.

(*c.*) The number which may take an *adjective* or *verbal* attribute is much greater.

(*d.*) It should be observed, respecting either form of the above attributes, —

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* The verbal attribute may take the form of the *infinitive;* as, "I heard him *speak*" — or that of the participle; as, "I heard him *speaking*"

(1.) That they are *predicated*, (not *assumed*.) Compare with the example (121) the following, in which the same attributes are assumed: — "They made the man, an *officer*," i. e. "who was an officer;" "They made a *jealous* man;" "They made a *laboring* man."

(2.) When the verb is in the active voice, they are predicated of the *object*, not the *subject*, of the verb.

(3.) That the verb (in the active voice) performs the office of a transitive verb, governing the first object, and, at the same time, becomes a kind of copula, making that object a subject, and the second object its predicate. This latter function of the verb is retained when it takes the passive form. — See examples, (122.)

(*e.*) The infinitive *to be*, or the participle *being*, with *as*, is often placed between the object and its attribute; as, "We considered him *to be* too young," or "*as being* too young."

Direct and Indirect Objects.

123. There is another class of verbs followed by two objects, — one denoting some *person* or *thing*, and the other, *that* to or from which the action tends. The former is called the *direct*, and the latter the *indirect* object; as, "He taught *me* [indirect] *grammar*" [direct]; "He asked *me* a *question*."

(*a.*) The indirect object is generally said to be governed by some preposition understood. It will be more fully discussed under the corresponding head in the next chapter.

124. When the verb assumes the passive form, the direct object should become the subject, the indirect object remaining in the objective case; as, "*Grammar* was taught *me* by him."

(*a.*) Sometimes, however, the indirect object becomes the

subject, leaving the direct object in the objective case after the passive verb; as, "*I* was taught *grammar* by him."

(*b.*) Some intransitive verbs take after them an object of a kindred signification; as, "He sang a *song;*" "He played a *game.*" Such verbs may take, also, an indirect object; as, "I played *him* a tune;" "We struck *him* a blow."

(*c.*) The following are some of the verbs which take a direct and indirect object: — *buy, sell, play, sing, find, get, lend, draw, send, make, pass, write, pour, give, teach, leave, bring, tell, do, present, throw, carry, ask, show, order, promise, refuse, deny, provide.*

Exercise 24.

Write thirty sentences, taking any of the verbs for predicates mentioned in 122, (*b.*) *or* 124, (*c.*)

Model. They appointed *George secretary.*

Change the verbs into the passive form.

SECTION VII.

THE ADVERBIAL ELEMENT. — THIRD SUBORDINATE ELEMENT.

125. It has been seen (Sec. VI.) that certain verbs (transitive) *require* the addition of one or more words to complete the sense. Any verb or adjective may take one or more additional words to denote some circumstance of *place, time, cause,* or *manner.* These additions constitute the *adverbial element.*

(*a.*) Such additions are not, like the object, indispensable to complete the sense.

126. The adverbial element, in its simplest

state, is expressed by a class of words called *Adverbs.*

NOTE Let the pupil study Lesson XII., in the Appendix.

I.—*ADVERBS DENOTING PLACE.*

127. The predicate may be limited by adverbs of place; as, "Come *hither;*" "I see him *yonder.*"

128. Adverbs of place are used to denote three relations, — *at a place,* (Where?) — *from a place,* (Whence?) — *to a place,* (Whither?)

NOTE. *Whither* and *whence* are now seldom used

II.—*ADVERBS DENOTING TIME.*

129. The predicate may be limited by adverbs denoting time; as, "He went *yesterday.*"

130. The time denoted by the adverb is always simultaneous with that of the *event.* Hence, in relation to the time of the speaker, (78, *a.*) an adverb may denote a time *present, past,* or *future;* as, "We are *now* walking;" "We walked *yesterday;*" "We shall walk *hereafter.*"

(*a.*) Some adverbs have no reference to either of the three divisions of time. Hence they denote time absolute; as, *always, whenever.*

131. Adverbs of time denote either a *point, duration,* or *frequency* of time, answering the questions, *When? How long? How often?*

III.—*ADVERBS OF CAUSE OR SOURCE.*

132. The predicate may be limited by adverbs of cause; as, "*Why* did he leave?"

(*a.*) There are properly no adverbs which *denote* a cause; they rather *inquire* for one.

IV.—*ADVERBS DENOTING MANNER.*

133. The predicate may be limited by adverbs denoting manner; as, "The water flows *gently*."

(*a.*) It has been seen that mode is that property of the verb, (70,) which shows the manner of an assertion. The manner of the attribute asserted is shown by means of adverbs.

(*b.*) Adverbs of manner embrace a large class, ending in *ly*, formed from adjectives denoting quality. They generally answer the questions, *How? How much?*

(*c.*) Adverbs answering the question, *How?* denote *quality;* those answering the question, *How much?* denote *quantity* or *degree.*

134. Besides those enumerated, there is another class of adverbs which show the manner of the assertion, not the attribute. Hence they are called *modal adverbs*, since they affect the manner of the *assertion*, (70, *a.*) and not that of the *attribute;* as, "Astrology is *not* a science;" "The sun had *scarcely* set."

(*a.*) Adverbs of mode affect the degree of *certainty* with which an attribute is affirmed. Beginning with *denial*, there are modal adverbs applicable to the several degrees of *doubt*, *uncertainty*, *possibility*, *probability*, and *certainty;* as, "My brother will *not* come;" "*Perhaps* he will come;" "*Possibly* he may come;" "He will *probably* come;" "He will *assuredly* come."

(*b.*) The predicate adjective or participle, following *copulative* verbs, generally indicates the manner of the action, while, at the same time, it denotes some property (35, *c.*) of the subject; as, The boy was made *sick*."

NOTE. For a list of the different classes of adverbs see Appendix, Lesson XII.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

135. When it is necessary to show that one predicate represents a quality or an action in a higher or lower degree than another with which it is compared, the *comparison* is effected by means of an intervening adverb; as, "George learned his lesson *sooner* than James learned his."

(*a*.) A comparison of one predicate with another may also be indicated by means of connectives denoting comparison.

136. Adverbs should be parsed by the following rule: —

RULE IX. Adverbs are used to limit verbs, participles, adjectives, and other adverbs.

MODELS FOR ANALYZING AND PARSING.

Light moves rapidly.

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.

Light . . . . . is the subject, because it is that of which the action "moves" is affirmed.

Moves . . . . . is the predicate, because it is the action affirmed of "light."

Moves rapidly is the complex predicate, because it is the grammatical predicate, with all its limitations.

Moves . . . . . is limited by "rapidly," an adverbial element of the first class, denoting *how* light moves.

Rapidly . . . is an adverb of manner, of the positive de-

gree, (compared, *rapidly*, *more rapidly*, *most rapidly*,) and limits 'moves;" according to Rule IX., "Adverbs limit, &c."

Exercise 24.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the adverbs: —

Human prudence should be rightly understood. The stage started early. Mary writes beautifully. The wind blows fiercely. We easily forget our own misdeeds. We cannot view the sun steadily. One can easily imagine himself a prince. The sun shines brightly. The water flows there. Perhaps he will do it. He cannot do it. Write carefully. Study attentively. Come here.

Write fifteen sentences, and limit each predicate by an adverb.

Model for all the Elements united.

Contsant boasting always betrays incapacity.

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.

Boasting . . . . . is the subject. (Why?)

Betrays . . . . . is the predicate. (Why?)

The subject. . . . . is limited by "constant," an adjective element of the first class, denoting a continued habit.

Constant boasting is the complex subject. (Why?) (95.)

Betrays . . . . . is limited, first, by "incapacity," an objective element of the first class, denoting *what* is betrayed.

Betrays . . . . . is also modified by "always," an adverbial element of the first class, denoting *time absolute*. (See 130, *a*.)

Always betrays incapacity . . is the complex predicate. (113.)

Order of Parsing the Elements.

1st. The subject. — 2d. The predicate. — 3d. The adjective element. — 4th. The objective element. — 5th. The adverbial element.

137. The five elements of the sentence (8) may be thus represented: —

Constant . . . . . First Subordinate.
BOASTING, BETRAYS . . . . Principal.
incapacity . . . . . Second Subordinate.
always . . . . . Third Subordinate.

(*a.*) To exhibit the class and connection of the elements in a general way, they may be best represented by a formula in which S shall stand for the subject, P for the predicate, and *Adj.*, *Obj.*, and *Adv.* for the adjective, objective, and adverbial elements. The connection of the subordinate elements with the principal is indicated by the sign of addition, and the class of each by the figure underneath. Thus. —

	Adj.	+	S	:	P	+	Obj.	+	Adv.
Class.	1		1		1		1		1

Exercise 25.

Analyze the following examples, and parse each word. Show which have five elements, and which have not.

The pupil performed the task correctly. The ambitious often deceive themselves. The slothful seldom respect themselves. No man should return an injury. Idleness begets poverty. Animals run. Some animals run swiftly. The birds devour the cherries greedily. Virtue is often neglected. Socrates the philosopher was condemned.

Write five sentences containing five elements; —

five, containing four; — five, containing three; — and five others, containing only two.

SECTION VIII.

INTERJECTIONS, AND THE CASE INDEPENDENT.

138. There are certain words used simply to express the emotions of the speaker, which do not form any part of a sentence; as, *oh! alas! ah!* such words are called *Interjections*, because they are *thrown in* between the parts of a sentence.

(*a.*) Interjections have no dependence upon other words, and therefore need no further illustration.

139. It is often necessary to designate the person to whom language is addressed. When this is done, his name or title is introduced, generally, at the beginning of the sentence, but has no grammatical relation to the parts of it; as, "Father, I have returned;" "Sir, defeat is impossible."

140. A noun or pronoun thus used is said to be in the *nominative case independent.*

141. The interjection and the nominative case independent may be parsed by the following rule: —

RULE X. The nominative case independent, and the interjection, have no grammatical relation to the other parts of the sentence

Model for Analysis and Parsing.

Oh! father, I want that lily.

I . . . . is the subject. (Why?)
Want. is the predicate. (Why?)
Want. is limited by "that lily," denoting *what* is wanted.
Oh! . is an interjection, having no dependence upon the other parts of the sentence; according to Rule X.
Father is a common noun, of the second person, singular number, masculine gender, and nominative case independent; according to Rule X.

Exercise 26.

Write ten sentences, each containing a nominative case independent, an interjection, or both. Analyze and parse according to the model.

SECTION IX.

COMPLEX ELEMENTS.

142. It has already been shown, that the subject and predicate may become complex by adding other words to them, giving rise to the distinction of *grammatical* and *logical* subject or predicate.

(*a*.) It should be distinctly understood, that all the other elements of a sentence, however long it may be, must depend upon the subject and predicate.

143 The subordinate elements. also, may be-

come complex, giving rise to a similar distinction of *grammatical* and *logical*.

EXAMPLES.

Simple Elements.

Adj	SUB.		PRED.	*Obj*	*Adv.*
careless	boys	....	will finish	lessons	... quickly
Complex Subject.			*Complex Predicate.*		

Complex Elements.

Comp. Adj.	SUB.		PRED.	*Comp. Obj.*	*Comp. Adv.*
Very careless ..	boys	..	will finish ..	their lesson ..	too quickly
Complex Subject.			*Complex Predicate.*		

144. In a complex element, the simple element, on which the others depend, is the basis of it. Thus "careless" is the basis of "very careless;" "lessons" is the basis of "their lessons;" and "quickly" is the basis of "very quickly."

145. The *simple element* which is joined to the basis is dependent upon it, and hence is said to be *subordinate* to it; as, "He purchased a *good* farm."

(*a.*) "Good," in this example, is subordinate to "farm" This element, in turn, may become the basis to another element subordinate to itself; as, "He purchased a *very* good farm."

(*b.*) This connection of elements may be continued indefinitely, forming *different degrees* of subordination.

146. Complex elements are formed by uniting two or more *dissimilar* simple elements; the one being *principal*, and the other *subordinate* to it.

Besides being dissimilar in rank, (i. e. one *principal* and the other *subordinate*,)

(*a.*) Two elements, dissimilar in *name*, may be united, —

An *adverbial* to an *adjective* element; as, "An *exceedingly beautiful* river ornaments the town;" "One *treated hospitably* should return the favor;" —

An *adjective* to an *objective* element; as, "My uncle drove a *spirited horse*."

(*b*.) Two elements, similar in name, but dissimilar in *office*, may be united, —

An adverb of *quantity* or *degree* to an adverb of *time*, *place*, or *manner;* as, "We dined *unusually late;*" "He has gone *too far;*" "The boat moves *very rapidly;*" —

An adjective element denoting *quality*, *number*, *order*, &c., to another adjective element denoting *office* (104) or *possession*, (106;) as, "John, *the beloved disciple*, was banished;" "*The good man's* hope will not disappoint him."

(*c*.) Two elements, similar in name and office, but dissimilar in *their particular application*, may be united, —

A noun in the *possessive case* to a noun in the *possessive;* as, "*Jacob's brother's son;*" —

A noun in *apposition* to a noun in *apposition;* as, "His brother *David the painter*."

In the first example, "brother's" limits "son," and "Jacob's" limits "brother's." In the second, "David" limits "brother,' and "painter" limits "David."

147. The basis of a complex element determines its *name* and *class;* as, "Birds fly *very swiftly*."

(*a*.) "Swiftly," the basis of "very swiftly," shows the complex element to be an adverbial element of the first class.

148. An adjective is often made subordinate, not to another adjective or noun, alone, but to both united; as, "An *active* young soldier."

(*a*.) When a limiting and a qualifying adjective both belong to the same noun, the former should be placed first; as, "*all* good men;" "*this* little book;" "*the* besieged city."

(*b*.) The articles *a* and *the* should stand first with all adjectives, except *many* and *such;* as, ' many a flower;" "such a book.'

Model for analyzing complex Elements.

The king issued his decree.

It is a simple sentence.

King . . . . . is the subject.

Issued . . . . . is the predicate.

The subject is limited by "the." "The king" is the complex subject.

The predicate is limited by "his decree,"—a complex objective element, of the first class, denoting *what* was issued. "Issued his decree" is the complex predicate.

Decree, ... the basis of the complex objective element, is limited by "his,"—a simple adjective element of the first class, denoting *whose* decree. Parse "decree" by Rule VIII., and "his" by Rule VII.

Note. Each subordinate element may be complex, and should be analyzed in the same manner.

Exercise 27.

Analyze the following sentences according to the model.

His oldest brother's son was sick. Alfred the Great subdued the Danish king. Peter the hermit preached the first crusade. William the Conqueror defeated Harold the Saxon king. Excess produces premature old age. Touch it very lightly. Avarice often produces contrary effects. Interest speaks all languages. It acts all parts. Guard well your own heart. The shade protected the weary pilgrim. Labor disgraces no man. Joseph, Jacob's favorite son, was sold. Moses received the ten commandments.

Write ten sentences of your own, making either element complex.

SECTION X.

COMPOUND ELEMENTS.

149. In the preceding section, it has been shown that *dissimilar* elements may be united by making one *subordinate* (146) to another. It is often necessary to unite *similar* elements by making them *coördinate* with each other.

150. Two or more elements are said to be *coördinate* with each other, when they sustain the *same rank* in the sentence, and are placed in the same relation to some other element; as, "*John* and *James* attended school."

(*a.*) "John" and "James" are both subjects of "attend;" they hold the same rank (both subjects) in the sentence, and are similar in construction; they are hence called *coördinate*, which means, *of the same rank*. In the sentence "*John's* brother *James* attended school," "John's" and "James" are subordinate to "brother."

151. When two elements are coördinate with each other, they form one *compound* element; as, "George *reads and writes.*"

152. An element may be both complex and compound; as, "George *reads the papers and writes letters.*"

153. A subordinate element of the first class is joined to its basis *immediately.* (14, *a.*, 144.)

154. Coördinate elements of any class are joined to each other by a peculiar class of words called *Conjunctions.*

(*a.*) It will be readily perceived that two elements thus con-

nected must either be both *principal* or both *subordinate;* and, either case, they must be of the same name, that is, both subject both predicates, both adjective elements, &c. So, again, the adjective or adverbial elements thus connected must be of the same species; both must express *quality* or *possession*, &c.

155. Connectives are divided into two general classes — *coördinate* and *subordinate;* so named from the elements which they unite.

156. *Coördinate* conjunctions are used to connect *similar* elements, (149;) subordinate connectives are used to connect *dissimilar elements.*

NOTE. Subordinate connectives will be treated of in their proper place.

157. Coördinate conjunctions are divided into three classes: —

(*a.*) *Copulative*, or those which *add* the parts to each other; as, *and, also, as well as;* —

(*b.*) *Adversative*, or those which show that the parts are *opposed* or *contrasted* in meaning; as, *but, still, yet, nevertheless.*

(*c.*) *Alternative*, or those which offer or deny *a choice* between two things; as, *or, nor, else.*

158. Coördinate conjunctions may be used to connect, —

(*a.*) Two or more similar *principal elements;* — *subjects;* as, "*Mercury* and *Venus* first appear;" — *predicates;* as, "This ancient city was *captured* and *burned.*"

(*b.*) Two or more similar *subordinate elements;* — *adjective elements;* as, "A *wise* and *virtuous* prince ascended the throne;" — *objective elements;* as "Hercules killed *a lion* and *a boar;*" — *adverbial*

lements; as, "He lal ored *faithfully* and *successfully.*"

159. The parts of a compound element have a common relation to the rest of the sentence.

NOTE. Coördinate conjunctions, used to connect subordinate elements, must always unite those of the same degree of subordination (145, *b.*); as, "He sent Samuel, his *first* and *only* son." "Son" is subordinate to "Samuel," and "*first*" and "*only*" are alike subordinate to "son; that is, they are of the same degree of subordination.

160. The following is the rule for parsing coördinate conjunctions: —

RULE XI. *Coördinate* conjunctions are used to connect similar elements.

MODELS FOR ANALYZING AND PARSING.

Socrates and Plato were distinguished philosophers.

It is a sentence having a compound subject.*

Socrates and *Plato* form the compound subject, because they are united by "and," and have a common (159) predicate, "were philosophers."

The subject . . . . . is not limited.

The predicate . . . is limited by "distinguished," an adjective element of the first class, used to describe "philosophers."

And . . . . . is a coördinate conjunction, (copulative,) and connects the two simple subjects; according to Rule XI.

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* A sentence having but one of its elements compound, is not properly a simple sentence, (27,) nor is it strictly a compound (29) sentence. It may, not improperly, be called a *partial* compound, since one of its parts is compound. All such sentences may be converted into complete compounds, as will be shown hereafter

NOTE. Two subjects united by a coördinate conjunction, do not form a compound subject, unless the predicate may belong to each when taken separately; as, "Socrates was a distinguished philosopher," and "Plato was a distinguished philosopher." But not so with the following propositions: — "Two and two are four;" "Vice and misery are inseparable." We cannot say, "Two are four and two are four;" "Vice is inseparable and misery is inseparable."

The same distinction should be observed in any element "The boat sails *between Brooklyn and New York;*" not "between Brooklyn and between New York."

The soldier was weak, but courageous.

It is a sentence having a simple subject and compound predicate.

Soldier . . . . . is the subject.

Was weak and *was courageous* form the compound predicate, because they belong in common to the same subject — "soldier."

The subject . . is limited by "the," an adjective element of the first class, used to define "soldier."

But . . . . . is a coördinate conjunction, (adversative,) and connects the two predicates by contrasting the latter with the former, according to Rule XI.

You may buy books or slates.

It is a sentence having a compound objective element.

You . . . . . is the subject.

May buy . . . is the predicate.

You . . . . . is not limited.

May buy . . . is limited by "books or slates," a compound objective element, of the first class showing *what* may be bought.

Or . . . . . is a coördinate conjunction, (alternative,) showing that a choice is offered between "books" and "slates," which are connected by it; according to Rule XI.

161. Since a compound element may have a *verb* or *pronoun* agreeing with it, the following rule should be observed: —

Rule XII. When a verb or pronoun relates to two or more nouns connected by a coördinate conjunction, —

1st. If it agrees with them taken *conjointly*, it must be in the *plural number*; —

2d. But, if it agrees with them taken *separately*, it must be of the same number as that which stands next to it.

3d. If it agrees with one, and *not* the other, it must be of the same number as that with which it agrees.

EXAMPLES.

1. Charles and his sister *were* absent.

2.
- Charles or his sister *was* absent.
- Neither Charles nor his sister *was* absent.
- Charles or his sisters *were* absent.
- Either his sisters or Charles himself *was* absent.

3.
- Not Charles, but his sister, *was* absent.
- Charles, and not his sister, *was* absent.
- Charles, as well as his sister, *was* absent.
- Not Charles, but his sisters, *were* absent.
- Charles, and not his sisters, *was* absent.

(*a.*) When the connected parts are preceded by *each*, *every*, and *no*, the verb or pronoun should be in the singular number.

162. When the parts connected by a coördinate conjunction are of different persons a verb should agree with the first person, rather than the second or third, and with the second rather than the third; as, "John and I are coming;" "Thou or John art guilty."

163. A compound predicate generally contains similar *attributes*, each being a *verb*, a *participle*, an *adjective*, or a *noun*.

(*a.*) The parts generally, though not always, agree in mode and tense.

164. When two or more nouns in the possessive case are connected, — 1st, if the object possessed belongs to the two *conjointly*, the sign of possession should be applied to the last only; as, *Little and Brown's store*; — but, 2d, if different objects, having the same name, are possessed, the sign of possession ('s) should belong to them separately; as. "*Greenleaf's and Emerson's Arithmetic.*"

Exercise 28.

Analyze the following sentences, parsing the conjunctions and the verbs: —

The sun and moon stood still. Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob, were Jewish patriarchs. Exercise ferments the humors, throws off redundancies, and assists nature. The plain and simple style recommends and heightens the sublime. Education expands and elevates the mind. Religion refines and purifies the affections Many very worthy

and sensible people have certain odd tricks. Some people do little good, but much evil.

Write predicates to the following compound subjects: —

Washington and Lafayette; sun and moon; my brother and I; Samuel or Peter; silver or gold; neither one nor the other; not Adam, but Eve; snow, as well as rain; William or his sons; Cain, and not Abel; Jacob or his children; the members or the president; not the children, but the father; George, and Joseph also; every man and woman; each boy and girl.

MODEL. Washington and Lafayette *were distinguished generals.*

Write compound predicates to the following subjects: —

Promises, murderer, emperor, picture, Bible, boys, children, grammar, Arnold, Cicero, Mahomet, coal, religion, virtue, diligence, behavior, kindness.

MODEL. Promises *are often made and broken.*

Write fifteen sentences of your own, limiting the subjects of the first five by a compound adjective element, — the predicates of the next five by a compound objective element, — and the predicates of the last five by a compound adverbial element.

MODELS. A *large* and *beautiful* horse was killed.
The flood swept away *trees*, *fences*, *houses*, and *barns*.
Some men sin *frequently*, *deliberately*, and *presumptuously*.

Write ten sentences, making any two elements in each compound.

MODEL. *George and David* study *grammar and arithmetic.*

SECTION XI.

SEVERAL ELEMENTS OF THE SAME NAME.—RECAPITULATION.

165. We have seen (Sec. VIII.) that several *dissimilar* elements may unite, and form *one* complex element, and (Sec. IX.) that several *similar* elements may unite, and form *one* compound element. Besides these, there may be several elements which do not unite with each other, but form *two* or *more* separate elements of the same name; as, "An indolent man *seldom* rises *early*."

(*a*.) Such elements are always subordinate to the subject or predicate, but are neither *subordinate to*, nor *coördinate with*, each other. They may be either *simple*, *complex*, or *compound*.

166. There may be several different *adjective* elements; as, "The *good* parson, *Mr. Wiseman*, has paid us a visit."

167. There may be two *objective* elements, (120;) as, "I gave *him a book*;" "They made *him president*."

168. There may be several *adverbial* elements; as, "The sun is *always* eclipsed *twice annually*."

NOTE. This condition of the elements will be illustrated more fully hereafter.

RECAPITULATION, AND CLASSIFICATION OF THE ELEMENTS.

169. The following recapitulation and classification of the materials which enter into the structure of a sentence, will serve to prepare the learner for the two succeeding chapters.

170. The first and most important element is the *substantive.*

(*a.*) The term *substantive* is here used to denote the noun, or any word which takes the place of the noun.

171. The substantive performs three distinct offices in the structure of sentences. — 1st. It may be used as the *subject.* (33.) — 2d. It may be used as an *attribute*, either predicated or assumed. (16; 60; 104, *b*; 106.) — 3d. It may be used as the *object.* (117, 119.)

172. The *verb*, considered apart from the attribute, (24, note,) performs the important function of connecting the attribute to the subject. (16, 17.)

173. The *adjective* (including the participle, which is only a species of adjective) is used to denote a property of the substantive, either predicated (36, *b.*) or assumed. (16, *a.*)

174. The *adverb* is used to denote some circumstance or property of an action or quality.

(*a.*) An adverb is used to denote some property of an *attribute*, and is to an attribute what an attribute is to a substantive; as, "He ran *swiftly*" = "His running is *swift;*" "She writes *beautifully*" = "Her writing is *beautiful.*"

(*b.*) Modal adverbs are to be excepted, since they modify the *assertion*, that is, the copula, and not the attribute.

175. The *conjunction* performs the important office of connecting the various elements.

NOTE. *Interjections* are not elements.

176. Strictly speaking, all sentences may be said to be composed of three kinds of *materials*, namely, *substantives*, *adjectives*, and *adverbs;* the copula, and all other merely connective words, forming

no part of the substance of the sentence, but serving only to unite these materials into one structure

EXAMPLES.

I. *The substantive*, used as, { 1. Subject; 2. Attribute; 3. Object. } { 1. Predicate; 2. Modifier.* }

II *The adjective*, . used as . . . . Attribute; { 1. Predicate; 2. Modifier.* }

III. *The adverb*, . . used as . . . . ——— . . . Modifier.

177. These materials, arranged in a general formula for a sentence, stand thus: —

Adj. Ele.	+	Sub.	: :	Pred.	+	*Obj. Ele.*	+	*Adv. Ele*
Substantive. Adjective.†	}	Substantive.	{	Substantive. Adjective.†	}	Substantive.		Adverb.

Exercise 29.

Analyze and parse the following miscellaneous examples. Tell the office of each SUBSTANTIVE, (*noun or pronoun*, 171;)—*of each* ADJECTIVE, (*adjective and participle*, 173.)

We have learned our lessons. Joseph was sold. You might have crossed the stream. He will sell some figs. She should have been studying her lesson. The earl is our guest. Be sober. Live contentedly. Break not your promise. Be thou a scholar. Be firm. Do be quiet The soldiers must have been drilled. The ship ploughs the sea. The emperor Antoninus wrote an excellent book. Edward the Confessor abused his mother. Queen Christina resigned her crown. Edward the Black Prince wore

* An *assumed* attribute is a modifier. † See ¶ 173.

black armor. I am, dear sir, your affectionate friend. My son, give me thy heart. The earth and the moon are planets. The creation demonstrates God's power and wisdom. Anarchy and confusion, poverty and distress, follow a civil war. Avoid arrogance and servility

The verdant lawn, the shady grove, the variegated landscape, the boundless ocean, and the starry firmament, are beautiful and magnificent objects. True religion gives our behavior a native and unaffected ease. Plain, honest truth wants no artificial coloring. Wise and good men are frequently unsuccessful. True worth is modest and retiring. Ulysses was a wise, eloquent, cautious, and intrepid hero. Good nature mends and beautifies all objects. The liberal arts soften and harmonize the temper. A philosopher should examine every thing coolly, impartially, accurately, and rationally. I shall go myself, or send some one. He is not sick, but discouraged. She sings, as well as plays. He has caught a pike or a perch. O, how cold it is! His fate, alas! was deplorable. Coming events cast their shadows before.

Complete the following sentences by writing answers to the questions in parentheses: —

(How many?) (What kind?) birds fly (How?) —— (Whose?) dog caught (What?) (When?) —— (How many?) fishes were caught (When?) —— (Which?) horse kicked (Whom?) (How?) (When?) —— (What?) tree stands (Where?) —— (How many?) men drove (Whom?) (How?)

MODEL. *Ten black* birds fly *swiftly.*

CHAPTER II.

(SIMPLE SENTENCES.)

ELEMENTS OF THE SECOND CLASS. — PHRASES.

SECTION I.

NATURE OF ELEMENTS OF THE SECOND CLASS.

178. An element of the second class is an *infinitive* or a preposition and its object. These, taken as a phrase, form, like an element of the first class, a constituent part of the sentence; as, "to haste;" "of Boston;" "in reading."

NOTE. The term *phrase* is properly used to denote any combination of words which does not form a proposition. Hence, complex or compound element of the first class is a phrase. But, in this work, the term will be used more particularly to denote an element of the second class.

(*a.*) In an element of the second class, both the *idea* and its *relation* (11, *b.*) are represented by separate words; whereas, in an element of the first class, the *idea* only is represented; the relation must be supplied by the mind; as, "horses *of Mexico*" = * "*Mexican* horses." Hence an element of the second class may be considered as the *expansion* of a corresponding element of the first.

(*b.*) An element of the first class may be changed to one of

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* In the subsequent parts of this work, it will often be necessary to represent equivalent expressions. For this purpose the sign of equality (=) will be used.

the second, or an element of the second to one of the first, by introducing or suppressing the exponent of the relation, making, of course, the requisite change of form; as, "a *virtuous* man" = 'a man *of virtue*'" "the temple *of Solomon*" = "*Solomon's* temple."

1. — *COMPONENT PARTS OF THE PHRASE.*

179. The *preposition* is a connective used to join a noun or pronoun to the word or phrase on which it depends. The noun or pronoun is called the *object* of the preposition.

180. Prepositions are used to denote the various relations of *time*, *place*, *cause*, *manner*, *possession*, &c.

NOTE. For a list of prepositions, see Appendix, Lesson XIII.

181. The use of the preposition may be expressed by the following rule: —

RULE XIII. A preposition is used to show the relation of its object to the preceding word on which the object depends; as, "George *went into* the *garden*."

182. The following is the rule for the object: —

RULE XIV. A noun or pronoun used to complete the relation of a preposition, must be in the objective case; as, "They gathered around *him*."

183. There is another species of phrase, of a verbal nature, which belongs to the second class of elements; as, "*for complaining*;" "He was guilty *of stealing*."

184. Of this species there are two varieties; —

(*a.*) The preposition and present participle; as, "for reading;" —

(*b.*) The preposition and perfect participle; as, "for having read."

185. The participle, thus used, is called a *participial noun*, and is disposed of by Rule XIV.

(*a.*) Verbal or participial nouns are formed from predicates by removing the copula. They belong to the second class of elements only when they follow prepositions.

EXAMPLES.

Boys *write* . . . . . *writing* . . . . . *in writing.*
Boys *are active* . . . . *being active* . . . . *in being active.*
Boys *are scholars* . . . *being scholars* . . . *in being scholars.*

NOTE. When the attribute of the predicate is an adjective or noun, the participle of the copula must be joined to it, to form the verbal noun.

(*b.*) The forms "writing," "being active," "being scholars," may be used as nouns in any relation, and therefore, in many respects, resemble the infinitive. They may perform the office which their position in the sentence (as *subject*, *attribute*, or *object*) requires, and, at the same time, may receive the same modifications which they would have received had they been complete predicates.

(*c.*) Hence a verbal noun may be modified first as a *noun*, and secondly as a *verb;* as, "I did not know of *his* understanding *the Greek.*"

(*d.*) In the sentence, "I was not aware of his being the judge of the Supreme Court," the form "being judge" is limited by "his," and is the object of "of;" yet "judge" retains its character as predicate-nominative, and is limited just as it would have been had the sentence stood, "He is judge of the Supreme Court."

186. The infinitive is a peculiar form, participating the properties of a noun and verb, and

when used to modify other words, should be parsed by the following rule: —

RULE XV. The infinitive depends upon the word which it limits; as, "We *went to see* you."

(*a.*) Since the infinitive partakes of the properties of a noun and a verb, it has the construction of both, and may be used as *subject*, *attribute*, or *object*.

(*b.*) The infinitive differs from the substantive in the following respects: — All words used to limit the infinitive are such as limit the verb. Like the verb, it may, by a change of form, denote the *continuance*, *completion*, or the *time*, of an action; as, "to write;" "to be writing;" "to have written;" "to have been writing."

(*c.*) It resembles the preposition and its object in the following respects: — It consists of two parts, — some form of the verb, and the particle "to," which, in some respects, is like a preposition. The "to" seems, like the preposition, to perform the office of a connective, as may be seen by omitting it in the following examples; as, "I love . . . write;" "We began . . . consider."

(*d.*) The infinitive differs from the preposition and its object in the following particulars: — The "to" is the only preposition used with the verb. The infinitive may be used as the subject; whereas the single phrase is seldom, if ever, so used. The two parts of the infinitive are never separated by intervening words. The two parts of the infinitive are taken together, and, thus combined, may become a noun in any relation.

II. — *THE PHRASE CONSIDERED AS A WHOLE.*

187. Thus far, the phrase has been considered in reference to its component parts. It must now be regarded as a combination, forming, like a single word, a distinct element of the sentence.

(*a*) The phrase, it will be seen, has a double construction:

1st. Each word, excepting those of the infinitive, has a construction of its own.

2d. As a *whole*, it forms one of the constituent elements of a sentence.

188. The phrase may be used to form either of the two *principal*, or of the three *subordinate* elements, (8;) and, since the materials of which any sentence is composed (setting aside connectives) are the *substantive*, the *adjective*, and the *adverb*, (176,) the phrase, in some of its varieties, must take the place of each of these parts of speech. Hence,

189. Phrases are divided into *substantive*, *adjective*, and *adverbial*, according to the office which they perform in the sentence.

(*a.*) No *one* sentence, perhaps, in the language is wholly composed of *phrases*. Yet phrases, mingled with other forms, may be used to constitute either of the five elements of a sentence.

SECTION II.

THE PHRASE USED AS A PRINCIPAL ELEMENT.

190. When a phrase is used to form either the *subject* or the *predicate* of a proposition, it becomes *a principal element of the second class.*

I. — *THE SUBJECT.*

191. The form most commonly used for the subject, is the *infinitive;* as, "*To see* the sun is pleasant;" "*To deceive* is criminal."

192. Since the infinitive is a kind of abstract noun, it is used to name an action when separated from its subject.

(*a.*) The infinitive bears a striking resemblance to the class of nouns called *abstract;* as, "*generosity*," from "*generous*" [man;] so "*to write*," from [men] "*write.*"

193. Although the infinitive expresses an action abstractly, it is often necessary to connect it with a *subject* or *agent* of the action; as, "*For you to deceive* is highly criminal."

(*a.*) In this example, "you" is the subject of "to deceive;" and the whole phrase, "for you to deceive," is the subject of the proposition.

(*b.*) An abstract noun may, in like manner, be connected with the person or thing from which the quality is abstracted; as, "a *generous* man' = "a man *of generosity.*" In either case, the quality "generous" or "of generosity" is attached to "man."

194. When the infinitive is used in its most general sense, as the subject of a proposition, the simple form only is used; as, "*To steal* is base;" but when it has a subject of its own, that subject must be in the objective case, following the preposition *for;* as, "For him to steal is base."

(*a.*) To change the infinitive to an element of the first class, substitute for it the participial noun, when the infinitive has no subject; but when it has a subject of its own, prefix to the participial noun the possessive case of the subject; as, "*To lie* is wicked" = "*Lying* is wicked;" "*For him to lie* is wicked" = "*His lying* is wicked."

195. A complex phrase, formed by uniting two prepositions and their objects, is sometimes used to denote a given *time* or *space*, and may become the subject of a proposition; as, "*From morning to night* is called day."

(*a.*) The simple phrase, consisting of the preposition and object, seldom, if ever, becomes the subject of a proposition.

196. By a peculiar idiom of the language, the infinitive or other phrase, when used as a subject, is first represented by "it" standing at the head of the sentence, and is itself placed after the predicate; as, "*It* is pleasant *to see* the sun;" "*It* is criminal *to deceive.*"

(*a.*) "It," thus used, or "there," as in ¶ 35, (*b.*) is said to be an *expletive*, because it fills a vacancy, and yet is not absolutely necessary to the sense. It often gives force and beauty to an expression, by enabling us to place emphasis on a word which otherwise must occupy an unfavorable position in the sentence; as, "*He* did not do it;" "It was not *he* that did it."

197. A phrase used as a substantive is always of the *third person, singular number, neuter gender.*

Models for Analyzing and Parsing

To steal is base.

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.

To steal is the subject, because it is that of which the quality (36, *b.*) "base" is affirmed. It is a principal element of the second class.

Is base. is the predicate, because it is the quality affirmed of "to steal." "Is" is the verb, and "base" is the attribute.

To steal is a verb, (principal parts, *steal*, *stole*, *stolen*,) in the infinitive mode, present tense, and is used as a noun, (third pers., sing. num., neut. gen., and nom. case,) in the relation of subject; according to Rule I.

It is easy to be deceived.

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.

To be deceived is the subject, and is represented by the expletive "it."

Is easy . . . . . is the predicate.

To be deceived is a regular passive verb, (principal parts, *deceive*, *deceived*, *deceived*,) in the infinitive mode, present tense, and is used as a noun, in the relation of subject; according to Rule I.

It . . . . . is a personal pronoun, representing "to be deceived;" of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and nominative case, and is an expletive used simply to introduce the sentence in a particular way

Exercise 30.

Analyze the following propositions, and parse the infinitives: —

To be good is to be happy. To err is human. To forgive is divine. To obey is to enjoy. To write the same things is not grievous. To swear is wicked. For you to cheat is surprising. To see the sun is pleasant. To acquire knowledge is necessary. For American citizens to be educated is essential. To conceal the truth is often highly criminal. To repent is our duty.

It is easy to deceive children. It is wrong to excite false hopes. It is base for one to betray his country. It is necessary to write. It is pleasant to receive our friends. It is wrong to hate our enemies.

Write predicates to the following infinitives used as subjects: —

To be idle; to labor; to write; to cheat; to love our enemies; to disobey our parents; to study; to sing; to play; to laugh; to open; to swim.

MODEL. To be idle *is criminal.*

Write infinitives as subjects to the following predicates, the sentence being introduced by "it."

It is easy. It is contemptible. It is enough. It is difficult. It is wrong. It pleased him. It encourages a child. It is important. It is favorable. It dignifies humanity. It is necessary. It disgusts one. It is pleasant. It is but just.

MODEL. It is easy *to write a lesson.*

Change any twelve of the above examples, introduced by "it," *to equivalent sentences, in which the infinitive shall stand at the head.*

MODEL. *To deceive children* is easy.

Change twelve of the above examples, beginning with the infinitive, to equivalent forms introduced by "it."

MODEL. It is human to err.

Change the infinitives in any twelve of the foregoing examples to participial nouns (194, *a.*) *used as subjects.*

MODEL. *Acquiring knowledge* is necessary.

II. — *THE PREDICATE.*

198. There are two forms of the phrase used as predicate, — the *substantive*, and the *adjective.* (36, *b. c.*, 189.)

199. The infinitive, when used as predicate, denotes, —

(*a.*) An *equivalent* term or expression; as, "To obey is *to enjoy*;" —

(*b.*) What is *possible*, or *obligatory*; as, "The passage is *to be found*;" "Our rights are *to be respected*;" —

(*c.*) What is *settled*, or *determined upon*; as, "The ship is *to sail* next week."

200. When the phrase used as predicate consists of a preposition and its object, it is equivalent to an adjective, and, like the predicate-adjective, denotes some property or circumstance of the subject; as, "George is *without a penny*" = "George is *penniless*;" "He is *at dinner* = *dining*;" "He is *in health* = *well*."

Models for Analyzing and Parsing.

Our honor is to be maintained.

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.

Honor . . . . . is the subject, because, &c.

Is to be maintained is the predicate, because, &c.

The subject, *honor*, is limited by "our," an adjective element of the first class, denoting *whose* honor.

The predicate . . . is not limited; it denotes what *ought to be*. "Is" is the copula, and "to be maintained" is the attribute.

To be maintained . is a regular passive verb, infinitive mode, present tense, and is used as a noun in the relation of predicate; according to Rule II

He is without fear.

NOTE. Analyze as above.

Is without fear, the predicate, denotes a *state* of the subject. "Is" is the copula, and 'without fear" is the attribute; it is equivalent to *fearless*, and relates to the subject; according to Rule III.

Without . . . . is a preposition, and shows the relation of "fear" to "he;" according to Rule XIII.

Fear . . . . . is a common noun, &c., and objective case, and is used to complete the relation denoted by "without;" according to Rule XIV.

EXERCISE 31.

Analyze the following propositions, and parse the predicates: —

His nephew is to be educated. The captive is to be released. The work is to be completed. George was in fault. The slanderer is beneath contempt. The child was in ecstasy. The general is in fine health. The passage is to be found. The watchmen are on their guard. He is at supper. The patient is in distress. Our word is not to be broken. The trees are in blossom. The prisoner is without friends. The gentleman's character is above suspicion. My brother is in excellent spirits.

Write ten sentences, having a phrase for the predicate.

Change the predicates in the foregoing examples to elements of the first class.

MODEL. His nephew *must be educated.* George *was culpable.*

SECTION III.

THE PHRASE USED AS THE ADJECTIVE ELEMENT.

201. When the phrase is used to effect either of the purposes mentioned in ¶ 96, (*a. b. c. d.*) it is called an *adjective element of the second class.*

202. *Quality* is denoted by an abstract noun formed from an adjective of quality, and is connected with the subject by the preposition *of;* as, "a *generous* man" = "a man *of generosity.*"

203. *Circumstance* is indicated by some noun denoting *place, time, cause, source,* or *manner,* connected by *of* or any other preposition which may show its true relation to the subject; as, "an *Arabian* horse" = "a horse *of* [or *from*] *Arabia;*" "a *morning* walk" = "a walk *in the morning;*" "a brazen kettle" = "a kettle *of brass;*" "a *hasty* preparation" = "a preparation *in haste.*"

204. To *identify* a common noun, we often connect with it by *of* its proper name; as, "the city of *Boston*" = "the city *Boston.*" The *infinitive* is often used for a similar purpose; as, "A desire *to assist* you prompted the proposal."

205. *Possession* is denoted by *of,* which shows the relation of the possessor to the object possessed; as, "the estate *of my father*" = "my father's estate."

(*a.*) It will readily be seen, that the preposition *of* is properly the *connective* of the adjective phrase. For the purpose of convenient reference, its principal uses are here brought together:—

1.) It shows the relation of a *quality* to the *object* to which it

belongs; as, "a man *of virtue*" = "a *virtuous* man." (2.) It shows the relation of an *effect* to the *cause* or *agent*, as, "the temple *of Solomon*" = "Solomon's temple." (3.) It shows the relation of a *material* to the *thing* made of it; as, "a vessel *of brass*" = "a *brazen* vessel." (4.) It shows the relation of a *whole* to some of its parts; as, "the top *of a tree*" = "the *tree-top*." (5.) It denotes the *relation* of *persons;* as, "the brother *of Samuel*" = "*Samuel's* brother." (6.) It denotes the relation of a *possessor* to the object possessed; as, "the estate *of my father*" = "*my father's* estate." (7.) It denotes the relation of a proper *name* to a common name denoting the same thing; as, "the city *of Boston*" = "the city *Boston*." (8.) It shows the relation of some circumstance of *time* or *place;* as, "the mountains *of Mexico*" = "the *Mexican* mountains;" "the report *of last year*" = "*last year's* report."

(*b.*) In many of these cases, some word is understood; as, "a walk *taken* in the morning;" "a house *situated* on the mountain;" "imprisonment *suffered* for debt;" "a heavy loss *caused* by fire."

(*c.*) The *participial* noun is often used to limit a noun, as, "The hope *of receiving* a reward stimulated him."

Models for Analyzing and Parsing.

The brother of Richard I. usurped the throne.

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.

Brother . . . . . is the subject.

Usurped . . . . . is the predicate.

The subject, *brother*, is limited by the phrase "of Richard," an adjective element of the second class, denoting the family relation of "brother" and "Richard;" it is equivalent to "Richard's." "Of" is the *connective*, and "Richard" is the *object.*

Of . . . . . is a preposition, and shows the rela-

tion of "Richard" to "brother;" according to Rule XIII.

Richard . . . . . is a proper noun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender objective case, and completes the relation of the preposition "of," according to Rule XIV.

His attempt to rescue his friend was fatal to himself.

NOTE. Analyze as in the last example.

Attempt, the subject, is limited by "to rescue," an adjective element of the second class, used to designate the attempt.

To rescue . . . . . is a verb, (from *rescue*, *rescued*, *rescued*,) in the infinitive mode, present tense, and depends upon "attempts;" according to Rule XV.

EXERCISE 32.

Analyze the following examples, and parse the phrases: —

A man of straw was prostrated. The dew of the morning has passed away. The light of the moon assisted us. The king of Morven struck his breast. The temple of Solomon was destroyed. Time to come is called future. A desire to see you has brought me here. The spirit of Loda shrieked. The joy of his youth was great. The city of Mexico is beautifully situated. The hope of the hypocrite will fail. The man at the mast-head descried an iceberg. His intention to resign has been publicly announced. The true spirit of heroism is generous. The brother of Henry left the city. A man of honor will

never forsake his friends. The hope of hearing from you has greatly delighted me.

Write sentences limiting the subjects by the following phrases: —

Of morning; in the moon; of brass; of generosity; of America; of virtue; of seeing; of doing; of wood, of Europe; on board; of the house; of friends; of home.

MODEL. The dawn *of morning* found Waverley on the esplanade.

Change any twelve of the adjective elements in the preceding examples into equivalent forms of the first class.

MODEL. The *morning* dew has passed away.

Write sentences of your own, limiting the subjects by the following adjective elements; then change them to the second class.

Evening, virtuous, David's, Solomon's, generous, honorable, penniless, comfortless, coming, breathless, prosperous experienced, deformed, wise, country, morning.

MODEL. An *evening* walk is agreeable = A walk *at evening* is agreeable.

SECTION IV.

THE PHRASE USED AS THE OBJECTIVE ELEMENT

1.—*SINGLE OBJECT.*

206. When the phrase is used to complete the meaning of a verb, either as *direct* or *indirect* object.

is called an *objective element of the second class*, as, "I desire *to speak*;" "I spoke *of him*."

207. The only form used as the direct object of a transitive verb is the *infinitive*; as, "We intend (What?) *to leave* to-day;" "They tried (What?) *to conceal* their fears."

208. The infinitive is used to complete the meaning of verbs which do not take a substantive as an object; as, "He seemed *to revive*."

(*a.*) The infinitive is often used to complete the meaning of adjectives; as, "The pupils are anxious *to learn*."

(*b.*) The *verbs* and *adjectives* which are followed by the infinitive, are commonly such as refer to some operation of the mind; as, *desire*, *desirous*; *emulate*, *emulous*.

209. The infinitive has two distinct uses as a modifier of the predicate. It may be used as *a complement* of a verb or adjective; or it may denote *a purpose*; as, "We went (Why?) to visit our friends."

(*a.*) The latter is an *adverbial* relation, and will be considered in another place.

II.—*DOUBLE OBJECT.*

Personal Object with an Infinitive.

210. A class of verbs, in addition to those mentioned in ¶ 122, (*b.*) take an object denoting some person, (sometimes a thing,) and an infinitive used as an attribute of it, (120.) as, "He urged *me to go*."

(*a*) The first object should be regarded as the subject of the

infinitive. (122, *d.*) This construction resembles the accusative with the infinitive in the Latin and Greek.

(*b.*) The subject of the infinitive must be a different person from the subject of the principal verb; otherwise the first object is omitted; as, "*I* wish *you* to go;" "I wish to go."

211. When such verbs assume the passive form, the first or personal object becomes the subject, and the infinitive remains in the predicate, (122;) as, "They made the *man labor*;" "The *man* was made *to labor*."

212. The infinitive takes the place of the direct object after certain verbs, (123,) and has, at the same time, the indirect object for its subject; as, "He taught me to write;" "*I* was taught *to write*." * Compare with the preceding, "He taught me *writing*," (185, *a*) or "Writing was taught me;" "I was taught *writing*."

213. The *to* of the infinitive is omitted after the active voice of *bid*, *dare*, *let*, *make*, *hear*, *need*, *feel*, *see*; as, "I heard him say it."

(*a.*) After the passive form of these verbs, the *to* is generally expressed; as, "He was heard *to say* it."

Direct and Indirect Object.

214. The indirect object cannot always be expressed by a single word. (123.) It often requires a preposition to show its relation to the predicate, especially if the direct object is placed next the verb; as, "George gave a book *to me*."

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* *Writing* and *to write* (124, *a.*) may be considered as the object after the passive *was taught*.

(*a.*) The indirect object often shows the source *from* which an action tends, the *material* out of which any thing is made, or the *theme* of conversation; as, "We made a *box out of wood;*" "He made a fire of coals;" "They begged a *favor of me;*" "He spoke *of a reward.*"

215. Some verbs take an indirect object only; as, "Charles spoke *of his father.*"

(*a.*) Such verbs often assume the passive form; in which case, the preposition must follow the passive verb; as, "His father *was spoken of;*" "The anchor *is trusted to.*"

(*b.*) It is not always easy to distinguish an indirect object from an *adverbial circumstance.* The general rule is this: — An indirect object denotes the tendency of an action *to* or *from* some object; whereas an adverbial circumstance denotes the *place*, *time*, *cause*, or *manner*, of an action.

216. The indirect object is often used to complete the meaning of *adjectives* which denote some state of the mind, or are derived from verbs; as, "The general was desirous *of glory*" = ("desired glory.")

Exercise 33.

Analyze the following examples, and parse the infinitives: —

They began to sing. The boy learned to write. I did not expect to find it. The children love to play. We hope to see him. The ambassador desired to have an interview.

He seemed to sleep. We ought to know. The sun appears to rise. The boy was anxious to learn. The student was ambitious to rise.

I exhorted him to return. Cadmus taught the Greeks to use letters. Let us sit. (213.) I heard him speak. We made them stop. He bade me go. I saw him fall. The

officer commanded the soldiers to fire. We told them to wait. I ordered him to leave. The doves besought the hawk to defend them. Fingal bade his sails to rise.

Change the verbs in the last paragraph to the passive voice. (211.)

MODEL. He *was exhorted* to return.

Write sentences containing the following predicates, and limit each predicate by a direct and an indirect object, placing the direct object first: —

Lend, teach, make, bring, throw, give, present, write, buy, ask, play, show, deny, refuse, promise.

MODEL. I lent a book *to father.*

Re-write these examples, and place the indirect object first, omitting the preposition.

MODEL. I lent *father* a book.

Change any twelve of the above infinitives to participial nouns.

MODEL. They began *singing.*

SECTION V.

THE PHRASE USED AS AN ADVERBIAL ELEMENT.

217. Whenever the phrase is used to limit a verb or adjective by denoting some relation of *place, time, cause*, or *manner*, it is called an *adverbial element of the second class;* as, "The messenger came *from Washington;*" "We left *on Tuesday;*" "He ran *for fear;*" "You wrote *in haste.*"

(*a.*) Since the phrase denotes an adverbial relation, it can often be changed to an adverb. So also the adverb may often be changed to a phrase. (178, *b.*)

Model for Analyzing and Parsing.

We left on Tuesday.

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.

We . . . is the subject, and

Left . . is the predicate, both principal elements of the first class.

We . . . is not limited.

Left . is limited by the phrase "on Tuesday," an adverbial element of the second class, denoting the *time* of leaving.

On . . . is a preposition, and shows the relation of "Tuesday" to "leave;" according to Rule XIII.

Tuesday is a noun, &c., and completes the relation of "on;" according to Rule XIV.

I.—*PHRASES DENOTING PLACE.*

218. Phrases, like adverbs of place, (128,) denote three relations, — *whither, whence, where.* The first two refer to *direction;* the third, to *locality.*

219. Tendency to a place (*Whither?*) is indicated by *to, towards, into, up, down,* and sometimes *for.*

(*a.*) Tendency in a vertical direction is indicated by the opposites *up* and *down;* in a horizontal direction, by *along*, if it has no reference to a limit; by *towards*, if it only approaches a limit; by *to*, if it reaches it; and by *into*, if it enters it.

220 Tendency from a place (*Whence?*) is denoted by *from, out of.*

221. *Locality* (*Where?*) relates to the different dimension of space, and is represented by the opposites, *in, out of; within, without; before, behind* or *after; over, under; above, beneath* or *below; on* or *upon, underneath.* To these are added, *at, near, round, around, about, across, along, beside, through.*

(*a.*) *Between* and *betwixt* denote a place between *two* positions. *Among* and *amidst* refer to several positions.

Exercise 34.

Analyze the following propositions, and parse the phrases: —

The kangaroo lives in New Holland. Burgoyne surrendered at Saratoga. A treaty of peace was concluded at Marseilles. Napoleon was banished to St. Helena. The battle was fought at Vittoria. The church stands beside the river. Mesopotamia was situated between two rivers. The nuncio came from Rome. The Israelites came out of Egypt. They went to Canaan. We sat on the sofa. The birds flew over the barn. The rabbits burrowed under the tree. We sailed around the island.

Write sentences of your own, limiting the predicates by the following phrases: —

Over the hill; on the ground; up the tree; to New York; from Philadelphia; through the air; on the steps; toward the east; beside the wall; around the garden; by Long Island; along the road; athwart the sky.

Model. *The horse ran* over the hill.

Change the following adverbs to equivalent phrases, and apply them in sentences of your own: —

Here, there, hither, thither, hence, thence, eastward, westward, homeward, somewhere, nowhere, everywhere, yonder.

MODEL. The consul resides *in this place.*

Write fifteen sentences limiting the predicates by phrases denoting place. Let five refer to DIRECTION, *and ten to* LOCALITY.

II. — *PHRASES DENOTING TIME.*

222. It has been seen (78, *a. b.*) that an event may relate to *two* points of time, — that of the speaker, and a specified time. The specified time may be denoted by the *phrase.*

223. Phrases, like adverbs, may refer to the *past*, *present*, and *future;* but, unlike them, may denote three relations in reference to each of these three grand divisions. (78, *b. c.*)

224. Phrases are used to mark the time of an event more *definitely.* They may denote a *point*, a *period*, or *frequency* of time, and, like the adverb, answer the questions, *When? How long? How often?*

(*a.*) Frequency is generally expressed by the noun *times*, limited by some numeral denoting the number of repetitions; as, "It was done [for] four times." Below four times, the *adverb* is generally used; as, *once*, *twice*, *thrice.*

(*b.*) The preposition is often omitted in phrases denoting either of the above relations; and in those denoting *frequency*, it is rarely expressed; as, "We labored *all day;*" "The steamer left *last Monday;*" "Randolph crossed the Atlantic *sixteen times* in nine years."

(*c.*) The following table contains the principal prepositions employed to denote the different relations of time: —

I. *Time simultaneous.*
1. Point . . . . = *at, on, in, within, by.*
2. Period. . . . = *for, during, through, throughout.*
3. Frequency.*

II. *Time antecedent.* . .
1. Point . . . = *before, ere, towards.*
2. Period . . . = *till, until.*
3. Frequency = *for.*

III. *Time subsequent.* . .
1. Point . . . . = *after.*
2. Period . . . = *from, since.*
3. Frequency = *for.*

(*d.*) A point of time, is often denoted by the preposition and participle; as, "I went, *on hearing* the news."

(*e.*) *Between* and *betwixt* denote both antecedent and subsequent time, since they refer to two points; as, "I shall leave between Monday and Thursday."

Exercise 35.

Analyze the following propositions, and tell whether the phrases denote a time simultaneous with, antecedent to, or subsequent to, the time of the event: —

The steamer left on Friday. The cars will arrive at twelve. Some birds remain throughout the year. My cousin staid a week. (224, *b.*) The work must be completed before Saturday. The stage will arrive towards morning. The president staid till Monday. The boat left after twelve. I have been here since sunrise. The boat was repaired six times.

Write ten sentences, each containing some phrase denoting time.

Select fifteen sentences from your reading lesson, each having a phrase denoting time.

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* As the present is but an instant, a repetition of an act cannot occur in present time. We cannot say, "I do it ten times," unless we use "do" in the sense of "shall do."

III.—*PHRASES DENOTING CAUSE OR SOURCE.*

225. Phrases which denote cause or source generally answer the questions, *Why? On what account? For what purpose? From what source?* as, "Christ was betrayed *for money.*"

(*a.*) The prepositions used to denote these relations are, most commonly, *for*, *with*, *of*, *from*, *by*, *through*. To these add the phrases *on account of* and *because of.*

226. The infinitive often expresses a moral cause or *motive;* as, "He went *to see.*"

(*a.*) The infinitive commonly called *absolute*, denotes a purpose; as, "To confess the truth, I was present."

227. The participial noun often expresses a cause or *motive;* as, "He was arrested *for stealing.*"

Exercise 36.

The poor man died of hunger. The woman fainted from fright. The farmer was imprisoned for debt. The soldier fights for glory. The party were travelling for pleasure. The victim seemed, by his dress, to be a sailor. The children went to see the animals. They remained to visit their friends. Washington sent an officer to reconnoitre the enemy's camp. We stopped to see the consul.

Write twenty sentences, limiting each predicate by a phrase denoting cause.

IV.—*PHRASES DENOTING MANNER.*

228. Phrases denoting manner, like their corresponding adverbs, may denote either *quality* or *quantity.* Those which denote quality answer the

question, *How?* as, "The messenger came (*How?*) *in haste*" Those which denote quantity answer the questions, *How much?* &c.; as, "The wall was *ten rods* long."

(*a.*) Phrases denoting *quality* are commonly connected with verbs; those denoting quantity, with adjectives.

229. Phrases answering the question, *How?* are, —

(*a.*) Those which show *how any thing is done;* as, "The height of the mountain was measured *with accuracy;*" —

(*b.*) Those which show a *resemblance;* as, "The water rushed *like a torrent;*" —

(*c.*) Those which show the *means* or *instrument;* as, "Turenne was killed *with a cannon ball;*" —

(*d.*) Those which denote *accompaniment;* as, "Abraham went *with Lot;*" —

(*e.*) Those which denote *agency;* as, "The world was made *by him.*"

NOTE. Such phrases as "with certainty," "in truth," "without doubt," show the manner of the *assertion*, and are therefore expanded forms of the modal adverbs (134) "certainly," "truly," "doubtless."

230. *Quantity* may be spoken of *absolutely*, or *by way of comparison;* as, "The horse is *twenty years* old;" "The horse is *too* old *for service.*"

231. Quantity used absolutely may mark, —

(*a.*) *Degree* of magnitude; as, "She was modest *to excess;*" —

(*b.*) *Measure* of magnitude: as, "The wall is *ten feet* high;" —

(*c.*) The measure of *excess;* as, "He is *four inches** taller than his brother."

232. An attribute may be predicated of a subject, so as to show that it exists in *quantity* or *degree* equal to, or unequal to, the use which is to be made of it. The former is called comparison of *equality;* the latter, of *inequality;* as, "Medicine is good [not in itself, but] *for a sick man;*" "The medicine is *too* powerful [not for all complaints, but] *for a chronic affection.*"

233. In comparison of equality, when the second term is a verbal idea, the *infinitive*, with or without its subject, (193,) or the *participial noun*, may be used; as, "Prunes are good *for eating*, or *to eat;*" "The cake is too rich *for the child to eat.*"

(*a.*) Comparison of equality is indicated, first, by the simple adjective with *for;* secondly, by *enough* or *sufficiently* . . . . *for*, or the simple infinitive without "for;" thirdly, by *so* . . . . *as*, with the infinitive; as, "Milk is good *for children;*" "The apples are ripe enough *for use*, or *to use;*" "Smith was *so* artful *as to extricate* himself."

234. Inequality is used to denote *excess* or *defect;* as, "The undertaking was *too* great *for so slight a preparation.*"

The *preparation* is not equal in magnitude to the *undertaking*

(*a.*) The superlative degree takes after it the noun denoting the object with which the subject is compared; as, "Achilles was the bravest *of the Greeks.*"

235. The second term may be, as above, an infinitive or participial noun; as, "It is *too* stormy *for the boat to leave to-night.*"

* The measure of magnitude, or of excess, is commonly expressed without a preposition. (224, *b.*)

(*a.*) Sometimes the *to* of the infinitive is omitted; as, "We could do no less than *receive* it.'

(*b.*) Comparison of inequality is denoted, first, by *too . . . . for*, or the simple infinitive without "for;" secondly, by *more* or *less . . . . than*, with the infinitive; as, "He was *too* young *for the situation*, or *to take* the situation;" "You can do no less than *invite* him."

Exercise 37.

Analyze the following propositions, and parse the phrases: —

The anchor clung to the rock with tenacity. The elephant takes his food with his trunk. The dove flew with rapidity. The Greeks took Troy by stratagem. The coachman rode by in haste. They have rushed through like a hurricane. They devoured the earth like an army of locusts. The Georgium Sidus was discovered by Herschel. Lightning and electricity were identified by Franklin. The man was culpable to a great degree. James walked with his sister. Columbus crossed the Atlantic with ninety men. The walls of Babylon were fifteen miles long. The jacket is too large for the boy. The water is too cold for bathing. The coat is too gay for an old man.

Write sentences limiting the predicates by the following phrases denoting agency. Then change the verb to the active voice: —

By Columbus; by Moses; by whales; by doves; by Washington; by Cromwell; by Socrates; by Judas; by Arnold; by Paul; by rabbits; by insects; by serpents; by bees; by labor.

Model. America was discovered by Columbus = Columbus discovered America.

Write sentences limiting the predicates by the following miscellaneous phrases: —

In haste; for a boy; with rapidity; like thunder; ten miles; six feet; seven rods; for me to do; with William; with a sword.

Change the following adverbs into phrases, and employ them in sentences of your own: —

Carefully, wisely, courageously, unblushingly, tenderly, diligently harmlessly, furiously, despondingly, thoughtfully, incautiously, rapidly, boldly, timidly, foolishly, brightly, modestly, painfully, elegantly.

MODEL. He managed *with care.*

Write or find twenty sentences containing a phrase denoting manner. *

236. The elements of a sentence, so far as developed, may be thus represented: — (137, *a.*)

	Adj. + SUB. : PRED. + *Obj.* + *Adv.*				
Class	1	1	1	1	1
Class	2	2	2	2	2

SECTION VI.

COMPLEX ELEMENTS.

237. Each element of a sentence may become complex, either by uniting two dissimilar simple elements of the second class, or by joining one of the first and one of the second.

* At this stage of the pupil's progress, his attention should be called to the different constructions as they occur in his reading lessons. He may at length acquire a habit of classification, which will enable him, at sight, to recognize any construction in the language. This power is vastly more valuable than

238. The *essential* point of dissimilarity in the parts of any complex element is, that one simple element stands as *principal* or *basis*, and that all others are *subordinate* to it; as, "The lawyer fully established *the* CLAIMS *of his client.*"

Here the objective element — "the claims of his client" — is complex. "Claims" is the basis, and "the" and "of his client" are subordinate to it.

NOTE. For other points of dissimilarity, see ¶ 146, (*a. b. c*)

239. In the formation of a complex element containing simple elements of different classes, —

(*a.*) An element of the *first* class may be the basis; in which case the whole is said to be of the first class, (147;) as, "Nobility of birth does not insure NOBILITY *of mind;*" —

(*b.*) An element of the second class may be the basis, and to it may be joined one of the first; as, "The three great apostles OF *practical* ATHEISM are health, wealth, and power;" —

(*c.*) An element of the second class may be the basis, and to it may be joined another element of the same class; as, "TWO OF HER SOURCES *of strength* are physical."

NOTE. The last two combinations are complex elements of the second class, because the basis of each is of the second class. A subordinate element of the second class is joined to its basis by a *connective*. (See 153.)

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the mere ability to parse words. As the naturalist, in passing through the fields, is able to classify each individual plant that meets his eye, so the pupil who becomes acquainted with the structure of the language, will readily arrange under its proper division every combination of words which he reads.

240. Complex elements may be formed by either of the following combinations of simple elements: —

EXAMPLES

Class I. By joining { 1 and 1 = *very* QUICKLY, / 1 and 2 = HOPE *of reward.*

Class II. By joining { 2 and 1 = IN *great* HASTE; / 2 and 2 = WITH ASSURANCE *of success*

NOTE. Classes I. and II., placed at the left, show the class of the complex element. (147.) The figures 1 and 2 show the classes of the simple elements which form the combination. The *basis* of each is in small capitals.

MODELS FOR ANALYZING COMPLEX ELEMENTS.

The whole course of his life has been distinguished by generous actions.

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.

Course . . . . . is the subject, and

Has been distinguished is the predicate.

The subject, *course*, is limited by "the" and "whole," both adjective elements of the first class. It is also limited by the phrase "of his life," a complex adjective element of the second class, used to explain the "course." "Of life" is the basis. "Life" is limited by "his," a simple adjective element of the first class, denoting whose life.

The predicate, *has been distinguished*, is limited by the phrase "by generous actions" — a complex adverbial element of the second class, showing *how* the course of his life had been distinguished. The basis of the

phrase is "by actions." "Actions" is limited by "generous," a simple adjective element of the first class, showing *what kind* of actions.

NOTE. In these examples, the basis of each complex element is itself an element of the second class, and the phrase is formed by joining classes 2 + 1. (147.)

The excessive labor undergone in preparing for his examination, occasioned a dangerous illness.

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition.

Labor . . . . . is the subject, and

Occasioned . . . . . is the predicate.

The subject, *labor*, is limited by "the" and "excessive," both simple adjective elements of the first class. It is also limited by "undergone in preparing for his examination," a complex adjective element of the first class, (147, 153,) used to denote the *occasion* or *circumstance* of the labor. "Undergone" is the basis. It is an adjective element of the first class, and belongs to "labor." (Rule V.) It is limited by "in preparing for his examination," a complex adverbial element of the second class, denoting *how* the labor was undergone. "In preparing" is the basis. "Preparing" is limited by "for his examination," a complex adverbial element of the second class, showing *for what*, or *why*, he was preparing. The basis is, "for examination." "Examination" is lim-

ited by "his," a simple adjective element of the first class, showing *whose* examination. The simple elements of this combination may be thus represented: — 1 + 2 + 2 + 1.

The pred., *occasioned*, is limited by "a dangerous illness" a complex objective element of the first class, denoting *what* the labor occasioned. "Illness," the basis, is the object of "occasioned," (Rule VIII.) and is limited by "a" and "dangerous," both simple adjective elements of the first class. (103.)

Exercise 38

Analyze the following sentences, and separate each complex element into its component parts, according to the model: —

The Spartan youth were accustomed to go barefoot. Many a despicable wretch lies under a marble monument, decorated with a flattering epitaph. Italy is a large peninsula, bounded on the north by the Alps. The king returned in the gleam of his arms. The chiefs gathered round the falling Carthon. His words reached the heart of Clessàmmor. After the denial of the charge, he withdrew in dignified displeasure. The prayers of David, the son of Jesse, are ended. Suddenly the sound of the signal-gun broke the stillness of the night. The same is true of literary men.

Write sentences, limiting the subject of each by a complex adjective element, which shall have for its basis one of the following participles or adjectives placed at the head of the sentence: —

Gliding, eager, feeding, anxious, desirous, floating, conscious, encircled, enriched, regardless, flying, searching, waiting, opening, commencing, wading, poring, finding, aware, awake, ambitious, indignant, robed, detained, amazed, confused.

MODEL. *Gliding along the edge of the horizon,** a distant sail sometimes attracted our attention. *Eager to attain to the highest rank*, he labored incessantly.

Write complex elements based on the following nouns or infinitives used as objects, and introduce them into sentences of your own: —

Laws, congress, constitution, county, work, discourse, fable, dialogue, catalogue, inventory, league, truce, country, labor; to study; to invite; to leave; to stay; to sing; to have run.

MODEL. The Romans examined *the laws of Solon.*

Add simple or complex elements, either of the first or second class, or both, to the following phrases used as adverbial elements: —

In honor; on returning; by searching; in the capital; through the air; on opening; to view, (inf. of purpose, 226;) to solicit; to invite; over hills; under the wall; in search; into the town; for stealing; of his breaking; of her being sick; of his being a scholar.

MODEL. One hundred guns were fired *in honor of the victory gained by the Americans over the British.*

Write six sentences, introducing either a complex adjective, objective or adverbial element, containing the following combinations of simple elements: —

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* Place a comma at the end of the phrase, especially if it is long.

2 + 1 + 2. 2 + 2 + 1. 2 + 2 + 1 + 2. 1 + 2 + 1. 1 + 2 + 2. 2 + 2 + 1 + 2 + 1. (See model, p. 114.)

MODEL. He was saved *by ropes . . . thrown . . from the ship.*

SECTION VII.

COMPOUND ELEMENTS.

241. Compound elements of the second class, like those of the first, are formed by uniting two or more *similar* simple or complex elements of the second class; as, "*To read* and *to write* are profitable."

NOTE. For connectives, see ¶ 157, (*a. b. c.*)

(*a.*) It should be borne in mind, that a simple element of the second class has a connective (179) of its own, which unites it subordinately to some preceding word. Besides this, the parts of a compound element of the second class are united to each other by one of the coördinate conjunctions.

(*b.*) The essential point of similarity is the *rank* which the elements sustain to each other. They must be *equal* in rank (See 150, *a.*)

242. The component parts of a compound element should be of the same class, that is, both of the first or both of the second.

NOTE. To this rule there may be a few exceptions; as, "The pupil performed his task *promptly* and *with care;*" — better, "*promptly* and *carefully*," or "*with promptness* and *with care.*"

243. Compound elements may be formed by uniting, —

(*a.*) Two or more *principal elements;* as, "*For me to labor*, and *for you to be idle*, would be unjust;" "The lad was *without money* and *without friends*" = "*Penniless* and *friendless;*" —

(*b.*) Two or more *subordinate elements;* as, "The islands *of Cuba* and [*of*] *Hayti* belong to the West Indies;" "The boy learned *to read* and *write;*" "You may pass *through the house* and *garden.*" *

NOTE. See models for analyzing compound elements, Chapter I.

EXERCISE 39.

A stream of flame and smoke issued from the chimney. The hearts of the brothers were not divided during the peace and the troubles of this life. The obligation of respect and love for parents never ceases. Hampden placed himself at the head of his countrymen, and across the path of tyranny. To be or not to be, is the question. Sarah loves to sing and dance. They were stationed there to defend the fort, and to awe the citizens.

Write ten sentences, introducing into them a compound element of the second class. Let the first five be connected by "and;" *the next three be connected by* "but;" *and the remainder, by* "or" *or* "nor."

Write sentences uniting the words between the semicolons into a compound adjective or adverbial element of the second class.

Robber, murderer; truth, humanity; zeal, energy; England, America; Europe, Asia; hope, fear; day, night.

MODEL. The name of the *robber* and *murderer* has been ascertained.

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* The preposition is generally omitted by ellipsis in the second phrase.

SECTION VIII.

SEVERAL ELEMENTS OF THE SAME NAME.

244. There may be in the second, as in the first class, several elements of the same name, not connected with each other. (See 165.)

(*a.*) Such elements are always subordinate, and are generally either *adjective* or *adverbial*.

245. By means of the several conditions of the elements already explained, a simple sentence may be extended at pleasure.

Exercise 40.

An orator may often, by this kind of style, gain great admiration, without being nearer to his proper end. The unfortunate man passed from one subject to another, without being aware of the abruptness of his transitions. The coach will leave the city in the morning before sunrise. Recounting the dark catalogue of abuses already suffered, and appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of their intentions, they shook off forever their allegiance to the British crown, and pronounced the United Colonies an independent nation. The boat will sail from Norwich to New York on Thursday.

246. It will be readily perceived that the materials employed in this chapter resemble, in their use, those of Chapter I. There are, —

I. *The substantive phrase*, (the inf.) used as ..... { 1. Subject; 2. Attribute; 3 Object. } { 1. Predicate; 2. Modifier;

II. *The adjective phrase*, used as . . Attribute, { 1. Predicate. 2. Modifier;

III. *The adverbial phrase*, used as . . . ——— . . . . Modifier.

247. These materials, arranged in a formula, stand thus: —

Adj. Element.	+	Sub.	:	Pred.	+	Obj. Ele.	+	Adv Ele.
Infinitive, Adj. Phrase.		Infin.		Infinitive, Adj. Phrase,		Infin.		Adv. Phrase.

Exercise 41. — Miscellaneous.

King James wrote a treatise on the heinous sin of using tobacco. The ancients, for want of telescopes, formed many absurd notions of the heavenly bodies. The sun, according to some ancient philosophers, quenches his flames in the ocean. Alfred the Great was not only the king, but the father, of his people. I speak not of temporal, but of eternal interests. No one ought, unnecessarily, to wound the feelings, or insult the religious prepossessions, of his neighbors. We have taken up arms, not to betray, but to defend, our country. Study serves for delight, for ornament, and for ability. To attempt to work upon the vulgar with fine sense, is like attempting to hew blocks of marble with a razor. One of the noblest of the Christian virtues is, to love our enemies. Sincerity and truth form the basis of every virtue. The man of genuine virtue must be endowed with a sagacious judgment and an ardent zeal.

Write ten sentences, each containing complex or compound elements.

Complete the following sentences: —

He was formed (For what?). —— The writings (Of whom?) were studied (By whom?) (When?) (Where?, (Why?). —— (What kind?) poet (Of what place?) describes (What?) (How?).

Write sentences containing the following words Let all the words between the semicolons be introduced into a single sentence.

Honey, bee, flower; farmer, grain, ploughs; ship, sailor, mag, mast; lapidary, ring, diamond, gold; skeleton, muscles, nerves; inertia, force, momentum; equation, terms, quantity; history, chronology, era, dates; conscience, judgment, intellect.

SECTION IX.

INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

248. An *interrogative* sentence is used to ask a question; as, "Whom did you see?" A sentence used to state a fact, or the possibility of a fact, is called a *declarative* sentence; as, "I saw George;" "You can see George."

249. An interrogative sentence relates either to the *whole* or a *part* of a corresponding declarative sentence, called the *answer* or *responsive;* as, "Whom did you see? Ans. *John;*" that is, "I saw *John.*" — "Did you see John? Ans. *Yes* = I did see John."

(*a.*) The first question refers to only a part of the declarative sentence, namely, the object of the verb; but the second refers to the whole, and may be answered by "yes" or "no," which are equivalent to the entire sentence, — the former without the negative "not," the latter with it.

250. A question which refers to the whole of the corresponding declarative sentence, is called *direct;* one which refers to only a single part of it, is called *indirect.*

I. — *DIRECT INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.*

251. A direct interrogative sentence requires an affirmation or denial, and is introduced by the *verb* or its *auxiliary;* as, "*Have* you seen George? Yes = I have seen George."

(*a.*) Direct questions require, at the close, the upward inflection of the voice in uttering them; as, "Will you go'?"

Model for Analysis.

Have you written?

It is an *interrogative* sentence, because it asks a question; *simple*, because it contains but one proposition; *direct*, because it requires an affirmation or denial.

You . . . . . is the subject.
Have written . . is the predicate.

Note. The elements of an interrogative sentence are in all respects like those of a declarative.

Exercise 42.

Analyze the following sentences: —

Are you here? Is your brother well? Have you returned? Did Cain kill Abel? Is your master at home? Will you ride to town to-day? Should not merchants be punctual in paying their debts? Do you think him so base? Have you learned the lesson? May the children visit the country to-morrow? Had the patient recovered on your arrival? May we not sit under this tree? Must I leave town to-morrow? Does the bright sun grow dim in the heavens? Am I my brother's keeper? Are you

going to see the elephant? Shall I send the letter to the office? Did you kill the Nemæan lion?

Write fifteen direct interrogative sentences, and be careful to place after each an interrogation point, (?)

Convert the questions in the first part of this exercise into declarative sentences. Place a period (.) *at the end of each.*

MODEL. You are here. Your brother is well.

L. — *INDIRECT INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.*

252. An indirect interrogative sentence requires, as its answer, that part of the declarative sentence to which the question relates, and is always introduced by some interrogative word; as, "*Who* came? *Charles* = *Charles* came."

NOTE. Study the lesson in the Appendix on interrogatives.

253. An indirect question may refer to either of the five elements of a declarative sentence.

(*a.*) Connectives are not referred to by interrogatives.

254. Since the essential materials (176) of a sentence are of the nature of the *substantive, adjective,* or *adverb*, we have, to inquire for them, three kinds of interrogative words, —

(*a.*) *Interrogative pronouns*, which inquire for a substantive; as, *Who? Which? What?*

(*b.*) *Interrogative adjectives*, which inquire for an adjective; as, *What* or *Which* (person or thing?) *How many? What kind?*

(*c.*) *Interrogative adverbs*, which inquire for some

circumstance of *place*, *time*, *cause*, or *manner*; as *Where? When? Why? How?*

255. As the substantive may enter into a sentence in three different relations, (subject, attribute, and object,) the interrogative pronoun is made, by inflection, to indicate these relations.

(*a.*) When the pronoun is the *subject* or *predicate* of the interrogative sentence, it inquires for the subject or predicate of the answer; as, "*Who* comes? *Charles* = *Charles* comes." "*Who* is it? *Charles* = It is *Charles*." In like manner, when the pronoun is the *adjective*, *objective*, or *adverbial* element of the question, it inquires for the same in the answer; as, "*Whose* book was torn? *Peter s* = *Peter's* book was torn." "*Whom* did you see? *David* = I saw *David*." "*With whom* did you study? *With Francis* = I studied *with Francis*."

256. The adjective used as predicate is inquired for by *How?* as, "*How* is Charles? *Well* = Charles is *well*." The verbal attribute is inquired for by *What . . . . do?* or *What . . . . doing?* as, "*What* did James *do?* James *wrote*." "*What* is James *doing?* James is *writing?*" The adjective used as a modifier is inquired for by *What kind?* if it denotes *quality*; *How many?* if it denotes number; *Which* or *What* joined to the noun which the adjective limits in the answer, if it limits merely; as, "*Which* pen shall I use? *This, that, &c., pen.*

257. The adverbial element is used only as a modifier, and is inquired for by *Where? Whither? Whence?* for the three relations of place; *When? How long? How often?* for the three relations of time; *Why?* for cause; and *How?* or *How much?* for manner.

258. The indirect object and the adverbial element are often inquired for by *What?* or *Whom?* preceded by a preposition; as, "*To whom* (whom) did you write?" "*In what* (wherein) does he excel?"

(*a.*) The following are the principal interrogatives brought together: —

1 Those which inquire for a substantive: — *Who? Which? What?*

2. Those which inquire for an adjective: — *How many? What kind? What . . . . do,* or doing? * How?*

3. Those which inquire for an adverb: — *Where? Whither? Whence? When? How long? How often? Why? Wherefore? How? How much?* also, *In what? Through what?* &c.

(*b.*) These interrogatives become connectives when the interrogative sentence is made a subordinate part of another sentence as, "I know not *how* he came."

Model for Analysis and Parsing.

Where does he live? Ans. *In Boston.*

It is an *interrogative* sentence, because it asks a question, *simple*, because it contains but one proposition; *indirect*, because it refers to a *part* of a corresponding declarative sentence — "in Boston."

He . . . . . is the subject.

Does live . . . is the predicate.

The predicate is limited by "where," an adverbial element of the first class, inquiring for *place.*

Where . . . . . is an interrogative adverb, and belongs to "does live;" according to Rule IX.

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* Relating to the attributive part of a verb, i. e, the participle, which is a species of adjective. (65, *a*)

Exercise 43.

Analyze the following interrogative sentences, and parse the interrogative words : —

Who came in yesterday? Who reported the doings of congress? Whose hat is this? Whose knife have I found? Whom did you visit? Whom did the president nominate? Which book did you take? What name have his parents given him? What news have you heard? How many soldiers were killed in the battle? What kind of people first inhabited England? What is Charles doing? How is he? When shall you visit the Springs? When did he cancel the debt? How long did he stay? How often does George visit his mother? Where is the promised fruit of all his toil? Whence comes this tumult? Whither are you going? Why do you weave around you this thread of occupation? How did you come? In what way do you intend to go? To whom shall I deliver the message? At what time shall we send the letter?

Write answers to the above sentences, and draw a line under that part to which the question refers. Be careful to change the (?) *to a* (.)

Model. *David* came in yesterday.

Write sentences introduced by the following interrogatives : —

Why? On what account? Where? When? Whose? Of whom? On what? Whither? Whence? In what place? How many? Whom? Which? In consideration of what? On what condition? How? Wherein? By what? Over whom? On what? Under what? Through what? On whose account?

Write an answer to each.

CHAPTER III.

(COMPLEX SENTENCES.)

ELEMENTS OF THE THIRD CLASS. – SUBORDINATE CLAUSES.

SECTION I.

NATURE OF ELEMENTS OF THE THIRD CLASS.

259. INSTEAD of a *word* or *phrase*, an entire *proposition* is often used as one of the five elements of a sentence; as, "*When spring comes*, the flowers will bloom."

260. A proposition thus used is called *subordinate*, because it depends upon another, which, in reference to it, is called *principal*.

261. An element of the third class is, therefore, a subordinate proposition used as the constituent part of a sentence. (10, 178.)

(*a*.) It will be seen, first, that *words* and *phrases* may be united so as to form a simple sentence; and, secondly, that this sentence may lose its distinctness, and become an organic part of another sentence.

262. The propositions which unite to form a sentence are called *clauses*.

263. A complex sentence is formed by uniting a *principal* and a *subordinate* clause.

(*a.*) A complex sentence is formed by uniting two dissimilar simple sentences, just as a complex element is formed by uniting two dissimilar (146) simple elements.

I.—*COMPONENT PARTS OF THE SUBORDINATE CLAUSE.*

264. The parts which are essential to a subordinate clause are, a *connective*, a *subject*, and a *predicate*.

265. The connective is called *subordinate*, because it renders the proposition which follows it subordinate to some part of the principal proposition with which it is connected.

(*a.*) The connective is as much a part of the subordinate proposition as the preposition is a part of a phrase. In fact, the *same* word is often used in one construction to connect a phrase, and in another to connect a clause; as, "The ship sailed *before sunrise*" = "The ship sailed *before the sun rose*."

266. These connectives are parsed by the following rule: —

RULE XVI. *Subordinate* connectives are used to join dissimilar elements.

267. The subject or predicate of a subordinate proposition may be limited by an element of the *first*, *second*, or *third* class.

(*a.*) When the subject or predicate of a subordinate clause is limited by another clause, the latter is subordinate in the second degree. (See 145, *b.*)

II.—*THE CLAUSE CONSIDERED AS A WHOLE.*

268. The subordinate clause, like a single word or phrase, may form either of the five elements of sentence.

269. Subordinate clauses are divided, according to their nature and use, into *substantive*, *adjective* and *adverbial*. (176, 188.)

270. A substantive clause is a *substantive* or an *infinitive* expanded into a proposition; as, "*Stealing* is base" = "*To steal* is base" = "*That one should steal* is base."

271. An adjective clause is an *adjective*, *participle*, or *adjective phrase*, expanded into a proposition; as, "A *generous* man = a man *of generosity* = a man *who is generous*, will be honored."

272. An adverbial clause is an *adverb*, or *adverbial phrase*, expanded into a proposition; as, "The ship sailed *early* = *before sunrise* = *before the sun rose*."

III. — *USES OF THE SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSE.*

273. The substantive clause, like the substantive, (176,) may become the *subject*, *attribute*, or *object*, of a sentence.

274. Substantive clauses are of two kinds, — those which contain a *statement*, and those which contain an *inquiry*.

275. Those which contain a statement, are introduced by *that*, *that not*, and sometimes *but*, or *but that*; as, "*That* you have wronged me, doth appear in this."

276. Clauses which contain an inquiry are introduced by the several interrogatives. (258, *a*.)

277. In the use of interrogative clauses in a complex sentence, there are two cases: —

(*a*.) The interrogative may be the *principa*

clause. The sentence is then a complex interrogative sentence; as, "*Do you know* that your sister has returned?"

(*b.*) The interrogative may be the *subordinate clause.* The sentence is then a complex declarative sentence; as, "Your father inquired, *when I had heard from Madras.*"

278. When the principal clause is interrogative, the interrogation point should always be placed at the end of the sentence; but when the subordinate clause is interrogative, the period should be placed at the end of the sentence, except when the subordinate clause is a direct quotation. (See 299.)

(*a.*) When an interrogative sentence is made subordinate, and becomes an organic part of another sentence, it loses, in a meas ure, its interrogative character; unless quoted (299) directly. There is often a change of person, and generally a change of arrangement; as, "How did you obtain the situation?" "He asked me how *I* obtained the situation."

(*b.*) The interrogative becomes the connective to the subordinate clause. Hence, when interrogative pronouns are used as connectives, they should be carefully distinguished from relative pronouns, which are used as the connectives of adjective clauses. Compare "I know not who did it," with "I know not the man who did it."

SECTION II.

SUBORDINATE CLAUSES USED AS PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.

279. When a subordinate clause is used as the subject or predicate of a complex sentence, it becomes a *principal element of the third class.*

280. The substantive clause only can be used as a principal element.

I. — *THE SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSE AS SUBJECT.*

281. The substantive clause, like the substantive or substantive phrase, may become the subject of a sentence; as, "*That the earth revolves on its axis*, has been clearly proved."

282. By the idiom mentioned in ¶ 196, the substantive clause, as subject, is first represented by *it* standing at the head of the sentence, and is itself placed after the predicate; as, "*It* has been clearly proved *that the earth revolves on its axis.*"

Models for Analysis and Parsing.

Who was the author of Junius's Letters, has never been satisfactorily determined.

It is a complex sentence, because it contains a principal and a subordinate clause.

Who was the author of Junius's Letters, is the subject of the principal clause.

Has been determined is the predicate.

The predicate . . . . . is limited by "satisfactorily," an adverbial element of the first class, denoting *manner*.

Who was the author, &c., is a principal element of the third class. It is used as a noun third person, singular number, neuter gender, nominative case, and is the subject of the sentence; according to Rule I.

Who . . . . . is the subject of the subordinate clause, and

Was author . . . . . is the predicate.

Author . . . . . is limited first by "the," and secondly by "of Junius's Letters."

Who . . . . . is an interrogative pronoun, used in a subordinate clause. It has no antecedent. It is of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, nominative case, and is the subject of "was;" according to rule IV. It connects the two dissimilar clauses, according to Rule XVI.

NOTE. "*Who was author*" may be considered as the grammatical subject of the complex sentence, and "*Who was the author of Junius's Letters*," the logical subject. The connection of *who* will be best seen by using the idiom in ¶ 282.

EXERCISE 44.

Analyze the following complex sentences according to the model: —

That the earth is a sphere, is easily proved. That honor and fame are the offspring of labor, is the eternal law of nature. That sorrow robed the happy home in mourning, was enough. That no man is justified by the law in the sight of God, is evident. Whether the truth will be made to appear, is uncertain. That a peculiar insensibility exists to the obligations of the parental and filial relation, is too evident to need any extended illustration. That children may grow up as they please, seems to be the prevalent opinion. Where the robber concealed his stolen treasures, has never been ascertained. When letters were first used, is not certain. Why he resigned his office, will soon be made known. How he made his escape, is a mystery.

From what place he came, cannot be ascertained. In what manner he did it, is wholly unknown. Who gave the information, has been ascertained. Will he do it? is the question.

Write the above sentences, and introduce each by "it."

MODEL. *It* is the eternal law of nature, that honor and fame are the offspring of labor.

Write substantive clauses to complete the following; and then change them so as to place the subject before the predicate, dispensing with "it:" —

It is evident. It is uncertain. It appears. It has been ascertained. It is mysterious. It is well known. It will be shown. It is true. It is probable. It was denied by none.

MODEL. It is evident *that the bill will be defeated* = That the bill will be defeated, is evident.

Expand the following SUBSTANTIVES *and* INFINITIVES, *with the words joined to them in Italics, into substantive clauses used as subjects:* —

To swear is impious. *To err* is human. *The utility of the telegraph* is acknowledged. *The name of the swimmer* is not known. *Your abuse of my brother* is reprehensible. *The place of his concealment* has not been determined. *The time of the boat's arrival* was well known. *For him to eat unripe fruit* was presumption. *The cause of his delay* is unknown. *The immortality of the soul* is universally believed. *The paleness of the ink* is apparent *The authenticity of the Scriptures* has been clearly proved.

MODEL. *That one should swear*, is impious. *That the telegraph is useful*, is acknowledged.

Reduce any twelve of the preceding substantive clauses to nouns or infinitives.

MODEL. *The sphericity of the earth* is easily proved.

II. — *THE PREDICATE.*

283. The substantive clause may become the predicate-nominative after *to be;* as, "His pretext was, *that he misunderstood the design of the leader.*"

NOTE. This construction will not need a separate model since it is like the model on the 29th page, with the exception that the predicate-nominative is expanded into a clause. See also the preceding model.

EXERCISE 45.

Analyze the following complex sentences, and parse the predicates: —

My desire is, that you may succeed. The question is, How shall the treasury be replenished? His pretence was, that the storm of the preceding evening prevented his attendance. Our hope is, that no such results will follow. Your belief is, that the enemy has crossed the mountain. His remark was, that such service is exceedingly humiliating. The promise made him was, that he should visit his friends the coming autumn. My determination is, that you shall attend school in the country.

Write complex sentences to the following subjects, and let the predicates be substantive clauses.

Question, answer, recommendation, proposal, design, words, orders, resolution.

SECTION III.

SUBORDINATE CLAUSES USED AS THE ADJECTIVE ELEMENT.

284. Whenever a clause is used to limit a noun or pronoun in either of the ways mentioned in ¶ 96, (*a. b. c. d.*) it is *an adjective element of the third class;* as, "A man *who is industrious*, will gain respect."

(*a.*) The adjective element of the third class *asserts* (in a subordinate way) what, in either of the other classes, is *assumed.* Compare "a man *who is industrious*," with "a man *of industry*," or "an *industrious* man."

285. A noun may be limited either by an *adjective* clause or a *substantive* clause used as an adjective.

I. — *ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.*

286. Adjective clauses are introduced by *relative pronouns*, which serve to connect them with a limited noun or pronoun which is called the *antecedent;* as, "The *evil that* men do lives after them."

(*a.*) The relative pronoun refers to some *limiting adjective* in the principal clause, either expressed or understood, called its *correlative;* as, "*That* book *which* you have was printed in 1760."

287. The relative pronouns are, —

Who, relating to a *person;* —

Which, relating to a *thing;* —

That, relating to either a person or thing; — and

What, whatever, whatsoever, whoever, whosoever, whichever, and *whichsoever*, called *compound pronouns*, because they represent both the antecedent and relative.

(*a.*) *Who* is sometimes used as a compound pronoun; as, "Who steals my purse, steals trash."

(*b.*) The relatives, with their correlatives, may be thus represented: —

Correl.		Rel.
The,		
This, that,	Person (s) or thing (s)	*Who.*
These, those,		*Which.*
		That.

288. The agreement of the relative is determined by the following rule: —

Rule XVII. The relative must agree with its antecedent in *person*, *number*, and *gender*, but not in *case*.

(*a.*) When the antecedent is compound, the relative agrees with it by Rule XII. (161;) when it is a collective noun, the rule which applies to the verb (69, *b.*) is equally applicable to the pronoun.

289. The case of the relative depends upon the construction of the adjective clause.

(*a.*) The relative may be the *subject* (56) of the adjective clause; as, "The tempest *which* was raging with unwonted fury, drove them to the nearest shelter." In this relation of the pronoun, the adjective clause may be equivalent, 1st, to an adjective or participle denoting some *property* of the antecedent, (96, *b.*); as, "A man *who perseveres* will be honored" = "A *persevering* man will be honored;" — 2d, to a noun or pronoun in apposition, (96, *c.*); as, "Paul, *who was an apostle*, visited Rome" = "Paul, *an apostle*, visited Rome;" 3d, to a noun in the possessive case, (96, *d.*); as, "*Solomon's* temple was destroyed" = "The temple *which was built by Solomon* was destroyed."

(*b.*) The relative may become the *adjective element* of its clause; as, "The gentleman *whose aid was solicited* has left

town.' In this relation of the pronoun, the antecedent or limited word is represented as a possessor; the relative is parsed by Rule VIII., page 55.

(*c.*) The relative may become the *objective element* (117) of its clause; as, "The book *which I purchased* is damaged." In this relation of the relative, the adjective clause is equivalent to the *passive* participle; as, "The book *purchased* by me was damaged."

(*d.*) The relative with a preposition may become the *adverbial element* (217) of the adjective clause; as, "The house *in which he lived* has passed into other hands." In this relation of the relative pronoun, the adjective clause is equivalent to an adjective denoting *place*, *time*, *cause*, or *manner*. The preposition is not unfrequently placed at the end of the clause; as, "The house which he lived *in* has passed," &c.

NOTE. It not unfrequently happens, that the adjective clause, in this last case, assumes the form of an adverbial clause, an equivalent relative adverb taking the place of the relative pronoun and preposition; as, "The time *in which* Priam lived is uncertain" = "The time *when* Priam lived," &c. When the antecedent is suppressed, such clauses are strictly adverbial.

290. Compound relatives represent both the antecedent and relative; as, "What cannot be cured must be endured" = "*That which* cannot be cured must be endured."

(*a.*) In such examples as the last, the antecedent and adjective clause which limits it, are equivalent to a substantive; as, "*An incurable evil* must be endured." The compound relative, as *antecedent*, is the subject of "must be endured;" as *relative*, is the subject of "can be cured." Sometimes it is the subject of one verb, and the object of the other.

291. By an ellipsis of the relative pronoun, *as* takes its place after *such*, *many*, and *same*; as, "Such *as I have* give I unto you" = "Such as that is which I have give," &c.

292. Relative pronouns often relate, not to a word, but to a preceding *phrase* or *clause*; as

"The boy closed the blinds, *which darkened the room.*"

293. Clauses introduced by relative pronouns are sometimes nearly equivalent to independent clauses connected by "and." The relative, in such cases, is equivalent to "and he," "and she," or 'and it;" as, "He gave me a book, which he requested me to read" = "He gave me a book, *and* requested me to read *it*."

II.—*SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.*

294. A substantive clause is often used to explain the meaning of a noun; as, "The question *how we shall obtain funds*, has never been raised;" "The hope *that he should soon be released*, sustained him."

(*a.*) The substantive clause, thus used, resembles the noun in apposition, and may be considered as bearing the same relation to the construction in ¶ 283 as the noun in apposition does to the predicate-nominative, ¶ 60, (*a.*)

Models for Analysis.

A man who finds not satisfaction in himself, seeks for it in vain elsewhere.

It is a complex sentence, because it contains two dissimilar clauses.

Man . . . . . is the subject of the principal clause.

Seeks . . . . . is the predicate.

The subject . . . . . is limited by "a," also by the clause

"who finds not satisfaction in himself," an adjective element of the third class, describing "man," (103.)

The complex subject . . is "A man who finds not satisfaction in himself."

The predicate . . . . . is limited by "for it," "in vain," and "elsewhere." (Give the name and class of each.)

The complex predicate is "seeks for it in vain elsewhere."

Who . . . . . is the subject of the adjective clause.

Finds . . . . . is the predicate.

The predicate . . . . . is limited, first, by "not;" secondly, by "satisfaction;" and thirdly, by "in himself." (Give the name and class of each.)

Who . . . . . is a relative pronoun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, according to Rule XVII.; is the subject of the proposition "who finds," &c., according to Rule I., and connects this proposition with "man," the subject of the principal clause, according to Rule XVI.

Exercise 46.

Analyze the following examples, and parse the relative pronouns: —

The rewards which are promised, shall be given. Cannot the man who is faithfully attached to religion be relied on with confidence? He whom I loved is dead. Will not those who raise envy incur censure? The globe on which we live, is but a planet. Xerxes, upon whom For-

tune had lavished all her favors, proposed a reward to the inventor of a new pleasure. Whatever violates nature cannot be innocent. Whoever forgets a benefit, is an enemy to society. Will not he whose desires are boundless, always be restless? The assumption that our cause is declining, is utterly gratuitous. The opinion that children may grow up as they please, seems to prevail. The reason why he left his mother in such peril, has never been satisfactorily given.

Write twenty sentences, limiting the subject of each by an adjective clause. In five, let the relative be the subject of its clause; in five, let it be the adjective element; in five, the objective element; and in five, let it be an adverbial element. Let ten of the sentences be interrogative.

Reduce the adjective clauses in the first part of this exercise to simple or complex elements of the first or second class.

Model. The *promised* rewards shall be given.

Convert the following simple sentences into complex sentences, by expanding the Italicized adjective elements into clauses: —

The pride *of wealth* is contemptible. The *well-bred* man desires only to please. Reproof *given in public* hardens the heart. Milton *the poet* was blind. The sun, *vicegerent of his power*, shall rend the veil of parting night. A cottage *shaded with trees* is a pleasant object. The butterfly, *child of the summer*, flutters in the sun. Cæsar, *the enslaver of his country*, was stabbed in the senate-house. The house *of my father* stands near the road. My *brother's* dog was killed.

Model. The pride *which wealth begets* is contemptible.

Change them to interrogative sentences.

MODEL. Is not the pride which wealth begets contemptible?

Write complex sentences to the following compound subjects, limiting each by an adjective clause : —

The boy or the girl. The sun and moon. James or John. The fox and the geese. Not the servant, but the master. Susan, and not the sister. Neither the man nor the woman. Those books or slates. This boy or his parents. Some insect or reptile. Those trees or shrubs.

MODEL. The boy or the girl *who painted this picture*, deserves much praise.

SECTION IV.

SUBORDINATE CLAUSES USED AS THE OBJECTIVE ELEMENT.

295. When a clause is used to complete the meaning of a transitive verb, it is an *objective element of the third class*; as, "I perceive *that you have ordered a supply.*"

I. — *SINGLE OBJECT*

296. Substantive clauses in the objective, generally follow verbs denoting, — 1st. Some *act* or *state* of the mind (as perception, emotion, or will;) — 2d. A *declaration, order,* or *statement*; as, "I *wish* that you would assist me;" "The farmer *declared*

that his watch had gained half an hour in the night."

(*a.*) The following are some of the verbs of the first class: — *see, hear, feel, know, think, perceive, wish, anticipate, pray, entreat, desire, imagine, suppose, expect, hope, fear, suspect, understand,* &c. The following are of the second: — *say, declare, tell, announce, relate, assert, affirm, proclaim, report, state, notify, show, reply, answer, respond, foretell, deny, order, command, direct.*

297. Substantive clauses may follow *adjectives*, and even *nouns*, derived from these verbs; as, "I am *desirous* that you should visit the country;" "A *wish* that you might participate in our joy, has led me to make you this offer."

NOTE. For the classes of substantive clauses, and their connectives, see ¶ 274, 276.

298. To objective clauses properly belong the forms of language called

Direct and Indirect Quotation.

299. When we quote the language of another, we may either represent him as uttering his own words, or we may narrate them for him; as, "He said, '*I will do it*'" = "He said *that he would do it.*" The former is called *direct*, and the latter *indirect*, quotation.

(*a.*) In *direct* quotation, the quotation marks (" ") should be used. In *indirect* quotation, the connective *that* should introduce the quotation, (unless it be a question.) The person of the subject, the mode and tense of the verb, and the arrangement of the parts, should be changed, if necessary. (See example above.)

(*b.*) Instead of a single clause, sometimes whole pages are quoted as the object of a transitive verb.

(*c.*) Direct quotation approaches much nearer to a coördinate

rank with the principal clause, than indirect. The subordinate connective *that* is never used; and when the quoted language is a question, the interrogation point should always be employed.

(*d*) Both direct and indirect quotation, instead of being the object of a verb, may often be put in apposition with some noun; as, "The question *how we shall do it*, has never been asked" = "The question, '*How shall we do it?*'" has never been asked.

300. The principal clause is often thrown in between the parts of a direct quotation; as, "'For all that,' said the pendulum, 'it is very dark here.'"

301. The quotation often becomes the principal clause, and the principal is made a subordinate-adverbial clause, introduced by *as* to denote the authority on which the quoted assertion is made; as, "He left, *as he told me*, before the arrival of the steamer."

NOTE. Such subordinate clauses are nearly allied to modal ad verbs. In such constructions, the quotation marks are not to be used.

302. Direct quotation can be changed to indirect, by removing the quotation marks, inserting a connective, and making the requisite changes of *person*, *mode*, *tense*, and *arrangement*. (¶ 299, *a*.)

II.—*DOUBLE OBJECT.*

303. Besides an objective clause, certain verbs take an indirect object, either with or without a preposition; as, "We told HIM *that he was in danger;*" "He intimated TO ME *that my services would soon be needed.*"

(*a*) It will be seen that a single objective clause is equivalent to two objects like those mentioned in ¶ 120 and 210. The

former becomes its subject, and the latter its predicate; as, "I believed *him an honest man*" = "I believed *that he was an honest man.*" "I wish *you to go*" = "I wish *that you would go.*"

(*b.*) Sometimes the substantive clause itself is an indirect object; — 1st. Without a preposition; as, "I was informed *that he had arrived* = *of his arrival;*" — 2d. With a preposition; as, "I was speaking *of how we should cancel the demand;*" "Much will depend *on who the commissioners are.*"

304. When the principal verb assumes the passive form, the objective clause becomes the subject, but commonly remains after the predicate, being represented by *it* placed at the beginning of the sentence, (282;) as, "He said that the measure could never be adopted" = "*It* was said (by him) that the measure could never be adopted."

Model for Analyzing and Parsing.

Do you know that you have wronged him?

It is a *complex* sentence, because it is composed of dissimilar clauses; *interrogative*, because it asks a question; *direct*, because it requires an affirmation or denial.

You . . . . . is the subject of the principal clause.

Do know . . . . is the predicate.

The predicate. is limited by "that you have wronged him," an objective element of the third class, denoting *what* is known. It is used as a noun, third person, singular number neuter gender, and is the object of "do know," according to Rule VIII. "Do know that you have wronged him," is the complex predicate.

You . . . . . is the subject of the subordinate clause.

Have wronged is the predicate.

The predicate is limited by "him," a simple objective element, &c.

That . . . . . is a subordinate conjunction, and connects the substantive clause, "you have wronged him," to the predicate of the principal clause, "know," according to Rule XVI.

Exercise 47.

Analyze the following propositions according to the model: —

I believed that all these objects existed within me. I know not whether he will go. Will you tell me whom you saw on the Mall? We knew whose place was vacated. I knew not where I was. Will you tell me why you are sad? The teacher showed me wherein I had erred. My uncle explained how the seasons are produced. Will you show me why we invert the divisor? "I admire," said Aristodemus, "Homer for his epic poetry." "I always thought," said he, "that philosophy served to make men happier." They said, "Thou hast saved our lives." "King of Morven," Carthon said, "I fall in the midst of my course." They say that they have bought it. The truly great consider, first, how they may gain the approbation of God. He inquired, "Who comes there?"

Write ten sentences, and let each contain an objective clause illustrating direct quotation. Change each to the form of indirect quotation, and change five of them into interrogative sentences.

Model. "I have endeavored," said Socrates, "throughout life, to do nothing unjust" = Socrates said that he had endeavored, throughout life, to do nothing unjust. Did no Socrates say that he had endeavored, &c.?

Convert the following objects, with their attributes into objective clauses: —

I thought *him honest.* I wish *you to inform me of the fact.* We desired *her to stay.* The general commanded *the army to march.* The ancients *believed the earth to be a vast plain.* Some suppose *the planets to be inhabited.* The lunatic often imagines *himself a king.*

MODEL. I thought *that he was honest.*

Expand the following nouns, with the words belonging to them in Italics, into objective clauses: —

I forgot *the time of the lecture.* Socrates taught *the immortality of the soul.* Do you believe *the truth of these reports?* Explain *the cause of the tides.* Show me *the mode of its operation.* We anticipate *a pleasant day.* The officer found *the place of his concealment.* Did you hear *of his illness?* Who told you *of our success?* I wish *to go.* He expects *to be appointed.* Will you tell us *the object of this meeting?* The heathen believe *in a plurality of gods.*

Write complex sentences, employing the following words, and let the two words between the semicolons be the subjects, the first of the principal clause, and the second of the subordinate clause: —

Fox, grapes; boy, ink; Solomon, wisdom; poet, man; teacher, pupils; Washington, nation; Columbus, continent; brother, hand; father, son; George, geography; general, army.

MODEL. The *fox* said that the *grapes* were sour.

Select ten sentences from your History, or any other book, containing objective clauses.

Change the verbs of any five of the above examples to the passive form. (304.)

SECTION V.

SUBORDINATE CLAUSES USED AS THE ADVERBIAL ELEMENT.

305. A clause added to the predicate to denote some circumstance connected with it is *an adverbial element of the third class;* as, "I was agreeably deceived, *as I approached the place.*"

306. An adverbial clause is introduced by some conjunction, or conjunctive adverb, which relates to some adverb, expressed or understood, in the principal clause, called its *correlative;* as, "We must go (*thither*) *whither* the master leads."

(*a.*) The connective and its correlative are equivalent to two phrases; as, "I will go *where* he lives" = "I will go *to the place,* (there) *in which* (where) he lives."

307. Adverbial clauses, like their corresponding adverbs, or phrases, may denote *place, time, cause,* or *manner.*

MODEL FOR ANALYSIS.

When the wicked are multiplied, transgression increaseth.

It is a complex sentence. (Why?)

Transgression . . . . . is the subject of the principal clause
Increaseth . . . . . is the predicate

The predicate . is limited by "when the wicked are multiplied," an adverbial element of the third class, denoting *time*. (See Rule IX.) The complex predicate is, "increaseth when the wicked are multiplied."

Wicked . . . . . is the subject of the subordinate clause.

Are multiplied is the predicate.

When . . . . . is a subordinate connective, (conjunctive adverb of time,) and joins the adverbial clause which it introduces to the predicate of the principal clause, according to Rule XVI. It limits "are multiplied" and "increaseth," according to Rule IX.

I. — *CLAUSES DENOTING PLACE.*

308. The three relations of place (128, 218) are indicated by *whither*, *whence*, and *where*; as, "*Where* your treasure is, there will your heart be also."

309. Some adverbs of place admit of comparison; as, "The prisoner reached as *far* as his chain would allow," or, "no *farther than* his chain," &c.

(*a.*) The principal conjunctive adverbs of place are, *where*, *whither*, *whence*, *wherever*, *whithersoever*; and the phrases, *as far as*, *as long as*, *farther than*.

Exercise 48.

Analyze the following sentences: —

The soldiers stopped where night overtook them. Where your treasure is, there will your heart be also. Whereso-ever the carcass is, there will the eagles be gathered together. I will go whither you direct.

Where'er we tread, 'tis haunted, holy ground. Where true religion has prevented one crime, false religions have afforded a pretext for a thousand. Where all is mercenary, nothing can be magnanimous. Thou knewest that I reap where I sowed not! Whither I go, ye cannot come I travelled where disappointment smiles at hope's career Where there is no law, there is no transgression.

Where the olive leaves were twinkling in every wind that blew,
There sat beneath the pleasant shade a damsel of Peru.

Let me alone, that I may take comfort a little before I go whence I shall not return.

Write ten sentences, introducing an adverbial clause denoting place.

II.—*CLAUSES DENOTING TIME.*

310. Adverbial clauses denoting time are connected with their principal clauses by conjunctiv adveros of time.

311. These adverbial clauses, like adverbs, or adverbial phrases of time, answer the questions, *When? How long? How often?*

(*a.*) The last of these relations (How often?) is generally expressed by comparison. "I will go *as often as* you send for me."

312. Adverbial clauses denoting time, like phrases, mark *a specified time*, (79, *a.*) antecedent to, simultaneous with, or subsequent to, the event expressed by the principal verb.

EXAMPLE.

Edward was writing { *before* the mail arrived. / *when* the mail arrived. / *after* the mail arrived.

NOTE. See table, ¶ 79, (*c.*) and form a similar one, in which an adverbial *clause* shall mark the specified time.

313. Clauses, like phrases, may denote a *point*, a *period*, or *frequency*, of time.

(*a.*) The principal conjunctive adverbs denoting time are, *when*, *while*, *whilst*, *as*, *before*, *after*, *ere*, *till*, *until*, *since*, *whenever*; and the phrases, *as long as*, *as soon as*, *the moment*, *the instant*, *no sooner . . . than*.

(*b.*) The following table will show the different relations of these connectives: —

I. *Time simultaneous.*	Point . . .	= *when*, *as*, *whenever*, *as soon as*.
	Period . . .	= *while*, *whilst*, *as long as*
	Frequency	= *as often as*,* *as frequently as*.
II. *Time antecedent.* . . .	Point	= *before*, *ere*.
	Period . . .	= *till*, *until*.
	Frequency	= *as often as*, *as frequently as*.
III. *Time subsequent.* . . .	Point	= *after*.
	Period . . .	= *since*.
	Frequency	= *as often as*, *as frequently as*.

(*c.*) *While*, *whilst*, and *as long as*, denote the *duration*, *till* and *until*, the *commencement*, and *since*, the *termination*, of a period.

(*d.*) In clauses denoting time, there is often an ellipsis of the subject and verb; as, "*When reflecting with grief and astonishment upon this great change*, I felt a degree of pain."

EXERCISE 49.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the connectives: —

A dervise was journeying alone in the desert, when two

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* Frequency can apply to the present only when it denotes a *customary* act; as, "I visit the city as often as twice a year." (See note, p. 106.)

merchants suddenly met him. When the million applaud you, seriously ask yourself what harm you have done. When you have nothing to say, say nothing. Cromwell followed little events, before he ventured to govern great ones. The age of miracles is past, while that of prejudice remains. When articles rise, the consumer is the first that suffers. At length, the dial instituted a formal inquiry as to the cause of the stagnation, when hands, wheels, weights, with one voice, protested their innocence.

> And all the muse's tales seem truly told,
> Till the sense aches with gazing.

The moment the boat touched the shore, he was on "terra firma." As we were walking together, we met a stranger. I have not visited the city since we dissolved our partnership. As soon as we came in sight, the birds were frightened from the tree. I will remain until you return.

Write twelve complex sentences, introducing the subordinate clauses, by the connectives mentioned in ¶ 313, (*a.*)

Write appropriate clauses, denoting time, to each of the following sentences: —

I saw the smouldering ruins. We heard a distant cry. Will you answer my letter? The child may attend school. Migratory birds return to the north. You may play. How old were you? We should aid our friends.

Write five complex INTERROGATIVE *sentences, and let the dependent clause denote time.*

III. — *CLAUSES DENOTING CAUSAL RELATIONS.*

314. These subordinate clauses may be considered under four divisions: —

(*a.*) CAUSAL, — or those which denote a *cause* or *reason*; —

(*b.*) CONDITIONAL, — or those which denote a *condition*; —

(*c.*) FINAL, — or those which denote a *purpose*; —

(*d.*) ADVERSATIVE, — or those which denote a cause or reason conceded, as *opposed* to a result.

Clauses which denote a Cause or Reason.

315. There are two modes of representing the relation of causal clauses: —

(*a.*) When the conclusion or inference is stated, and sustained by some *cause* or *reason*, the latter clause is called *causal*, and is connected with the principal clause by *because*, *for*, *as*, *whereas*, *since*, and *inasmuch as*; as, "It must have rained last night, *for the ground is wet.*"

(*b.*) When the cause or reason is stated in an independent proposition, and a conclusion or inference is deduced from it, the latter clause is called *deductive* or *illative*, and is commonly connected with the preceding by a coördinate conjunction, to show its grammatical relation, and by *therefore*, *wherefore*, *hence*, *whence*, *consequently*, or *then*, to show its logical or causal relation; as, "The country is infested with wolves, and *therefore the sheepfolds should be secured.*"

NOTE. The coördinate conjunction is often omitted; as "The future is uncertain; therefore employ the present wisely." These clauses will be more fully considered in the chapter on coördinate clauses.

316. Deductive clauses may be changed to causal, or causal to deductive, by reversing the order of statement; as, "The sheepfolds should be secured, for the country is infested with wolves" = "The country is infested with wolves; therefore the sheepfolds should be secured."

(*a.*) *Therefore* is properly the correlative of the subordinate connectives *because*, *for*, &c.

Exercise 50.

Analyze the following sentences, and point out the causal clauses: —

A peace which consults the good of both parties, is the firmest, because both parties are interested in its preservation. We hate some persons, because we do not know them. As retreat was now impossible, Colter turned the head of the canoe. People are happy because they are good. Ye receive me not, because ye know him not. Since you have been intrusted with such treasures, you ought to practise the utmost vigilance. Because the wicked do not receive their just deserts immediately, they grow bold in transgression.

Write causal clauses to each one of the connectives, because, for, as, since, whereas, inasmuch as.

Change all the above examples to deductive clauses. (See 316.)

Take the corresponding exercise (p. 107) *in Chapter II., and change all the phrases which admit of it into causal clauses.*

Write clauses which shall give a reason for the following statements: —

The tides rise. The moon is eclipsed. We left the

city. We should acquire knowledge. We should form good habits in youth. You should honor your parents. Let us shun the company of the vicious. Improve your time. Cultivate agreeable manners. Never reveal secrets. Love your enemies. We should never harm the feelings of others. We should sympathize with the suffering.

MODEL. The tides rise *because the moon attracts the water.*

Conditional Clauses.

317. A conditional clause is an antecedent to some *effect* or *event*, but not necessarily its cause.

318. Conditional clauses are used to limit the principal clause by means of some *real* or *supposed* condition; as, "*If it rains*, I shall not go."

319. When the conditional clause denotes something *actual*, or assumed as *actual*, the tense form of the verb indicates its true time; as, "If it *rains*, *rained*, or *has rained*, I shall not go."

320. When the conditional clause denotes something *supposed* or *hypothetical*, the tense form of the verb does not indicate its true time.

(*a.*) The past tense represents present time; the past perfect, past time; and the past of the potential, future time; as, "I am not going; but if I *were going* (now), I should ride;" "I was not going; but if I *had been going* (yesterday), I should have told you;" "I shall not go; but if I *should* go (hereafter), I should walk."

(*b.*) Sometimes there is an ellipsis of the auxiliary; as, "If he (should) come, we will ride into the country."

321. The principal connective of conditional clauses is *if*. The following, which may be con

sidered as nearly equivalent to *if*, are also used: — *unless* (*if not*), *though*, *lest*, *except*, *provided that*.

322. The verb of the conditional clause is in the subjunctive mode, and may be either of the indicative or potential form, (86;) that of the principal clause is generally either in the indicative future, or in some tense of the potential.

323. Conditional clauses may become principal clauses, by changing the *subjunctive* to the *imperative* mode, and using *and* instead of *if;* as, "*If you will give me an axe*, I will cut this tree" = "*Give me an axe*, and I will cut this tree."

(*a.*) Sometimes the condition is expressed by a question; as, "Is any among you afflicted? let him pray" = "If any (one) among you is afflicted, let him pray."

(*b.*) By placing the subject after the verb, or between the auxiliary and the verb, "if" may be omitted; as, "Were he a more careful man, he would meet with better success."

Exercise 51.

Analyze the following complex sentences, and parse the connectives: —

If a tree loses its leaves before the fruit is ripe, the latter becomes withered. If the bark of a tree is injured, the tree becomes sick, and finally dies. Except ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish. If you will read my story, you can judge for yourself. If you would enjoy health, bathe often. I shall leave to-morrow, unless my friend arrives. You may return, if you please. Should it rain to-morrow, (323, *b.*) the lecture will be postponed. Were the cause good, he would not fear the attack of its enemies. Were patrons more disinterested, ingratitude would be more rare If we

wish to cut glass, we must have recourse to the diamond, Had I acted from personal enmity, I should justly be despised. If there be any thing improper in this address, the singularity of your present situation will excuse it.

Write five of the preceding examples, and change the mode of the conditional clause to the imperative.

MODEL. *Remove the leaves from a tree before the fruit is ripe*, and the latter becomes withered.

Write conditional clauses to limit the following sentences used as principal clauses: —

We shall go. You may attend school. The moon will be eclipsed. The patient will recover. George will improve. The ice will melt. The plants will not thrive. The stream cannot be crossed. The labor must be performed. Remorse will ensue. He can perform the task. Water will become ice. Fruit will not ripen.

MODEL. We shall go, *if it is pleasant.*

Apply a consequence to the following conditions.

If you leave; should he stay; had I stopped; were the measure to be adopted; could we ascend the ladder; unless relief come immediately; if the day should be unpleasant; should the wind blow; except he yield to the proposal; provided that a sufficient number of men can be obtained; if the term closes on Saturday.

MODEL. If you leave, *no one can supply your place.*

Final Clauses.

324. Clauses which denote a *purpose*, or *motive*, are called *final clauses*. They are connected by *that*, *that not*, and *lest*.

(*a.*) *Lest* denotes a *negative purpose*, or the avoidance of an evil, and is nearly equivalent to *that not;* as, "Take heed lest ye fall = *that* ye do *not fall.*"

325. The potential mode, or subjunctive, potential form, is always employed in final clauses, and the imperative or potential is commonly used in the principal clause.

326. An adjective clause, introduced by a preposition, and having its verb in the potential mode, generally denotes a purpose; as, "We have no other means *by which we may aid him.*"

(*a.*) Final clauses are often equivalent to an infinitive; as, "Eat that you may live" = "Eat to live."

(*b.*) Final clauses generally relate to some correlative phrase in the principal clause, such as, "in order," "with the design."

Exercise 52.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the connectives: —

I have brought a passage, that you may explain it. He visited the springs, that he might improve his health. I have been the more careful, that I might not be the instrument of his ruin. He sent me a history of Rome, that I might examine it. I opened the door, that I might see who was there. He went to the city, that he might consult an attorney.

Write clauses denoting a PURPOSE *or* MOTIVE *to the following:* —

We should take exercise. Avoid trees in a thunder-storm. Study. Improve your time. Shun bad company. Take heed. Reprove not a scorner. Answer not a fool

according to his folly. Oblige your friends. He opened the window. He fled his country.

Change the above clauses denoting purpose to infinitives. (326, *a.*)

Write sentences in which the following infinitives shall denote purpose, and then change them to clauses: —

To see his brother to hear the news; to enjoy the sea-breeze; to write a letter; to educate his children; to take lessons in music; to catch a robber; to sell his furniture; to obtain a situation in the bank.

Write five complex sentences, each containing an adjective clause denoting purpose. (326.)

Adversative Clauses.

327. Adversative clauses are used when we concede something which stands as a cause or reason opposed to the statement in the principal clause. They are introduced by *though*, *although*, *notwithstanding*, *however*; as, "Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him."

(*a.*) The correlatives of adversative clauses are, *yet*, *still*, or *nevertheless*, placed in the principal clause.

(*b.*) *Whatever*, *whoever*, *whichever*, and *while*, often have an adversative signification; as, "Whatever you may say, he persists in doing it."

328. An adversative clause may be expressed by a comparison of equality; as, "Poor as he was, he contributed more than any other man" = 'Though he was poor, he contributed more than any other man."

(2) Adversative clauses are often equivalent to phrases connected by *with*, *without*, *notwithstanding*, *despite of;* as, "*With all his faults*, he is a useful man" = "*Though he has many faults*, he is a useful man."

Exercise 53.

Analyze the following sentences: —

Though he was rich, yet for our sakes he became poor. Although the place was unfavorable, nevertheless Cæsar determined to attack the enemy. However careless he might seem, his fortune depended upon the decision. Feeble as he was, he devoted the whole day to study. Vigilant as were the watchmen, the robbers made frequent depredations. Whoever may oppose, we shall insist upon the adoption of the plan. He would pull a mote out of his neighbor's eye, while he has a beam in his own.

Write sentences in which the following adjectives, with as, *shall introduce an adversative clause. Introduce each by* though.

Bold, deficient, strong, poor, thoughtless, silent, bright, warm, faithful, honest, abrupt, wild, sad, joyous, contented.

Model. *Cold as it was*, we were compelled to be out through the night = Though it was cold, &c.

Expand the following Italicized phrases into adversative clauses. (See 328, *a.*)

With all his faults, I love him. He applied for a situation, *without a recommendation*. *Notwithstanding the storm*, we commenced our journey. *Despite of opposition*, he made his way to distinction.

Model. *Though he has many faults*, I love him.

Write a sentence having an adversative clause for each of the connectives, though, although, notwithstanding, however, while, whatever, whoever.

IV.—*ADVERBIAL CLAUSES DENOTING MANNER.*

329. By adverbial clauses denoting manner, the predicate of the principal clause may be compared with that of the subordinate, so as to show, 1st, a *correspondence;* 2d, a *consequence;* or, 3d, *equality* or *inequality* in magnitude.

330. *Correspondence* is indicated by *as*, *just as*, *so . . . as*, when it relates to a verb or adjective, and by *such . . . as*, and *same . . . as*, when it relates to a noun; as, "Speak as you think;" "These are such books as I have."

(*a.*) By an ellipsis of an entire proposition, two subordinate connectives come together, the former of which denotes correspondence; as, "Always act in private *as if* you were seen by others" = "Always act in private as you would do if you were seen by others."

331. Clauses denoting *consequence*, or *effect*, are introduced by *so . . . that*, when the consequence relates to a verb or adjective, and by *such . . . that*, when it relates to a noun; as, "The traveller was so weary that he fell asleep."

(*a.*) When the consequence relates to a verb, *so that* should follow it; when it relates to an adjective, *so* precedes, and *that* follows it; when it relates to a noun, *such* or *such a* precedes, and *that* follows it.

332. Comparison of *equality* (232) is indicated by *as . . . as;* as, "George is *as tall as his brother*" (*is tall.*) *So* is used instead of the first *as* after *not*, in clauses denying equality; as, "George is not *so tall as* his brother."

(*a.*) *Proportionate equality*, or equality between two predicat-

which *vary* in intensity, is indicated by *the . . . the*, *the . so much the*, with comparatives; as, "*The* colder it is, *the* better I feel."

333. Comparison of inequality is denoted by *than, more . . . than, less . . . than;* as, "George is *taller than his brother*" (*is tall.*)

(*a.*) Clauses denoting comparison are generally elliptical.

Exercise 54.

Analyze the following sentences, and tell which denote CORRESPONDENCE, *which* CONSEQUENCE, *and which* EQUALITY *or* INEQUALITY.

As a bird that wandereth from her nest, so is a man that wandereth from his place. As the door turneth upon its hinges, so doth the slothful man upon his bed. Will you read so that you can be heard? The robber struck him such a blow that he fell. Happiness is much more equally distributed than some suppose. Is gravity always as wise as it appears? The science of mathematics performs more than it promises. Experience is a surer guide than imagination. Is it not better to be laughed at than ruined? Moses built the tabernacle, as he was commanded. Do as your parents bid you. Can you paint the picture as she does? Our lesson is the same as that we had yesterday. The more eminent men are, (332, *a.*) so much the more condescending they should be to the humble. The more prudent one is, the more cautious he is. Many men live as though (330, *a.*) they were born to pleasures.

Write clauses denoting correspondence, to complete the following: —

As a man thinketh ..... Will you be so good ..... The pupil wrote the copy just as ..... The boy sings as ..... The task is the same as ..... Speak as..... Make the mark just as .....

Write clauses denoting consequence or effect to complete the following : —

The day was so stormy..... The sun is so bright ..... The patient had gained so much strength..... The hours seemed so long..... They gave him so little money..... We should acquire knowledge, so that..... It is so cold..... We have had so much rain.....

Write clauses denoting comparison of equality applied to the following adjectives : —

Wise, great, stupid, long, broad, fierce, cool, strong, weak, thin, bright, dark, faithful.

MODEL. Was Lycurgus *as wise as Solon?*

Write clauses denoting comparison of inequality applied to the same.

MODEL. Solon was wiser than Lycurgus = Lycurgus was not so wise as Solon.

334. It has now been shown that either of the five elements of a sentence may be a *single word*, a *phrase*, or a *clause*. They may be thus represented : —

	Adj. + SUB. : : PRED. + *Obj.* + *Adv.*					
Class 1	1	1	1	1	}	Simple sentences.
Class 2	2	2	2	2	}	
Class 3	3	3	3	3		Complex sentences

SECTION VI.

COMPLEX ELEMENTS CONTAINING CLAUSES.

335. With simple elements of the first class, the only complex element that can be formed consists

of two or more single words united, (143;) as, "very quickly." But with the addition of the phrase, three or four varieties can be formed. (240.) By uniting the three different classes of elements, (*single words, phrases, clauses,*) at least nine varieties may be formed, as will be seen by the following

EXAMPLES.

Complex elements may be formed, —

Class I.	By joining 1 & 1;	as,	*very* QUICKLY.
	By joining 1 & 2;	"	DESIROUS *of fame.*
	By joining 1 & 3;	"	A PLEASURE *which I cannot express.*
Class II.	By joining 2 & 1;	"	WITH *great* SATISFACTION
	By joining 2 & 2;	"	IN FEAR *of detection.*
	By joining 2 & 3;	"	FROM HIM *to whom it is due.*
Class III.	By joining 3 & 1;	"	IF HE COMES *quickly.**
	By joining 3 & 2;	"	WHEN WE WENT *to Albany*
	By joining 3 & 3;	"	AS I CAME *where he sat.*

NOTE. For an explanation of the table, see ¶ 240, Note.

EXERCISE 55.

Review the models for analysis of complex elements, in Chap. II., and analyze the following examples: —

The light, the celestial vault, the verdure of the earth, the transparency of the waters, gave animation to my

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* It is generally most convenient, except when minute analysis is required, to consider the subordinate clause, even though limited, as a simple element; as, "Since you have, *by your own choice,* refused *the proposal.*" The same may be said of the phrase, when only a limiting word comes between the preposition and its object; as, "in this place;" "through three volumes.

spirits, and conveyed pleasures which exceed the powers of expression. Totally occupied with this new species of existence, I had already forgot the light, though the first part of my being which I had recognized. If the blessings of our political and social condition have not now been too highly estimated, we cannot well overrate the responsibilities which they impose upon us. We hold these institutions of government, religion, and learning, to be transmitted (210) as well as enjoyed. I deem it my duty, on this occasion, to suggest, that the land is not yet wholly free from the contamination of a traffic at which every feeling of humanity must revolt.

SECTION VII.

COMPOUND ELEMENTS OF THE THIRD CLASS.

336. Although the clauses we have been considering are subordinate to some part of the principal clause, yet two or more of them may become coördinate with each other, and thus form a compound element of the third class; as, "I thought *that the substance of the fruit had become part of my own*, AND *that I was endowed with the power of transforming bodies.*"

337. Either of the principal or of the subordinate elements, when of the third class, may, like the single word or phrase, become compound. (151.)

Exercise 56.

Review the model on page 75, and then analyze the following sentences: —

I soon perceived that I had the power of losing and of recovering them, and that I could, at pleasure, destroy and renew this beautiful part of my existence. That their poetry is almost uniformly mournful, and that their views of nature were dark and dreary, will be allowed by all who admit the authenticity of Ossian.

> When riseth Lacedemon's hardihood,
> When Thebes Epaminondas rears again,
> When Athens' children are with arts endued,
> When Grecian mothers shall give birth to men, —
> Then thou mayst be restored.

I neither knew what I was, where I was, nor from whence I came. Why we are thus detained, or why we receive no intelligence from home, is mysterious.

Amongst that number was an old man, who had fallen an early victim to adversity, and whose days of imprisonment, reckoned by the notches which he had cut on the door of his gloomy cell, expressed the annual circuit of more than fifty suns. Bruyere declares, that we are come into the world too late to produce any thing new; that nature and life are preöccupied; and that description and sentiment have been long since exhausted. We may rather suppose, that Nature is unlimited in her operations; that she has inexhaustible treasures in reserve; that knowledge will always be progressive; that there are innumerable regions of imagination yet unexplored; and that all future generations will continue to make discoveries, of which *we* have not the least idea.

Write ten sentences, each containing a compound element of the third clas

SECTION VIII.

SEVERAL ELEMENTS OF THE SAME NAME.

338. A complex sentence may be greatly extended by introducing two or more modifying words, phrases, or clauses of the same name not connected with each other. (165.)

(*a.*) Adverbial clauses, from their variety, afford the greatest opportunity for using different elements of the same name. We may limit the predicate with an adverbial element denoting *place*, with another denoting *time*, &c. And each of these may be complex or compound.

Exercise 57.

Analyze the following complex sentences, and point out the words, phrases, or clauses, of the same name which are not connected with each other, yet belong to the subject or predicate: —

As I darkened the light, he cast his eye toward the window, that he might catch the feeble rays of the moon When we passed the corners of the streets, we were always saluted by some beggars who were congregated there. If there be, within the extent of our knowledge or influence, any participation in the traffic, let us pledge ourselves here, upon the Rock of Plymouth, to extirpate and destroy it.

Take any twelve of the unlimited propositions in the first five exercises, Chap. I. Sec. II., and expand them as much as possible, by additions to the subject and predicate.

339. The three classes of clauses, *substantive*, *adjective*, and *adverbial*, have now been explained. They may be thus represented, as they enter into the structure of a sentence: —

Adj. Ele.	+	Sub.	:	Pred.	+	*Obj. Ele.*	+	*Adv. Ele*
Adj. clause. / Subs. clause.		Subs. clause.		Subs. clause.		Subs. clause.		Adv. clause.

SECTION IX.

ABRIDGED PROPOSITIONS.

340. A complex sentence differs from a simple sentence only in the expanded state of some one or more of its elements. (270, 271, 272.) Hence,

341. A complex sentence may be reduced to a simple one by abridging its subordinate clause; as, "A man *who is deceitful*, can never be trusted" = "A *deceitful* man can never be trusted."

(*a.*) The abridged form partakes of the nature of the clause from which it is derived, that is, it is either *substantive*, *adjective*, or *adverbial*.

(*b.*) In abridging a proposition, the change is produced chiefly upon its essential parts, (264,) its subordinate elements being joined to the abridged form without alteration.

342. The general rule for abridging a subordinate clause, is, to remove the connective, and change the predicate to a participle or an infinitive; as, "*When* shame *is lost*, all virtue is lost" = "Shame

being lost, all virtue is lost;" "We told him *that* he *must leave*" = "We told him *to leave*."

(*a.*) The connective is retained in certain substantive clauses, when the predicate is in the potential mode, and the subject is the same as that of the principal verb. In such cases, the predicate is changed to the infinitive and the subject, dropped by ¶ 343, (*a.*); as, "I knew not *what I should do* = *what to do*." In like manner, we have, "*whom to send;*" "*where to go;*" "*when to stop;*" "*how to do it*," &c.

(*b.*) A similar change may take place in such adjective clauses as are mentioned in ¶ 326; as, "Give me a knife *with which I may cut this string* = *with which to cut this string* = *to cut this string with*."

NOTE. By changing the predicate to a participle or an infinitive, the assertion is destroyed; the attribute, either with or without the participle of the copula, (185, Note,) becomes an assumed property (16, *a.*) or is used substantively.

343. The following are the rules for the subject in an abridged proposition: —

(*a.*) When the subject of the subordinate clause is the same as the subject or object of the principal clause, it is omitted; as, "I wish *that I might go* = *to go*."

(*b.*) When it is different from the subject or object of the principal clause, it must be retained, and may appear either in the nominative, possessive, or objective case.

(*c.*) When it is in the nominative case, it is put absolute with the participle. "*When shame is lost* = *shame being lost*, all virtue is lost."

(*d.*) When it is in the possessive case, it becomes wholly subordinate to the abridged predicate used as a noun; as, "I was not aware *that he was going* = of *his* going." (185. *c.*)

(*e.*) When it is in the objective case, it is followed by the infinitive of the abridged predicate; as, "I told him *that he must go* = *him to go.*" (See 194 and 210.)

344. The following are the rules for the predicate: —

(*a.*) The abridged predicate may have two constructions, — that of an *adjective*, or that of a *substantive;* as, "The man *who perseveres*" = "The *persevering* man;" "I am not sure *that he will be present* = *of his being present.*"

(*b.*) When the attribute of the predicate is an adjective or a noun, the participle or infinitive of the copula must be joined to it to give it a verbal form; as, "to be industrious;" "being merchants."

(*c.*) When the attribute of the predicate is a noun, it must be in the objective case after the participle or infinitive of the copula, when the subject is changed to the objective (343, *e.*); as, "I believed that *it* was *he* = *it* to be *him.*"

(*d.*) It remains unchanged in the nominative, after the participle of the copula, when the subject is in the nominative, (343, *c.*); as, "As a *youth* was their *leader,* what could they do?" = "A *youth* being their *leader,*" &c.

(*e.*) It remains unchanged in the nominative, when, with the participle of the copula, it becomes a verbal noun, limited by the possessive case of the subject; as, "That he was a foreigner prevented

his election" = "*His* being a *foreigner* * prevented his election."

345. All abridged constructions may be reduced to four classes, — the *participial construction*, *the nominative absolute*, *the infinitive*, and *the participial noun* In the first two, the attribute is used as an *adjective;* in the last two, as a *substantive.* (344, *a.*)

346. In the participial construction, the subject is omitted, (343, *a.*) and the attribute of the predicate is joined as an adjective to some noun or pronoun in the principal clause. Hence,

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* That "foreigner," or any other word similarly used, is in the nominative case, will appear from the following considerations: —

(1.) It was in the nominative case before the clause was abridged (60.)

(2.) It cannot be in the possessive case, after the change, though it relates to the same person as "his;" for it neither has the sign of possession, nor does it denote possession. Besides, by a universal law of language, a dependent or limiting word, like "his," has no control over the construction of the words on which it depends (185, *c.*)

(3.) It cannot be in the objective case; for it does not depend upon any word (such as a preposition or verb) which requires it to be in that case; nor has any thing taken place in the process of abridgment, as in ¶ 344, (*c.*), to cause any change in its case. Hence, as it was in the nominative case before the change, it must still remain in that case, unless its position in the sentence should require a change.

(4.) But no position which it may take in being incorporated as a part of the principal clause, can cause a change of case. A subordinate clause may take any position in the sentence, (268;) hence its abridged form may take the same, (341, *a.*) Subordinate clauses have a twofold construction; one as a whole, and one as composed of parts; (261, *a.*); so have their abridged forms. Thus, in the following examples, the abridged forms, as a whole,

347. The participial construction is most commonly employed in reducing adjective clauses; as, "The culprit *who was convicted of stealing*, = *convicted of stealing*, was sent to the penitentiary."

348. Adjective clauses are often reduced by changing the predicate into a noun joined to the limited noun by "of;" as, "A man *who is generous* will gain friends" = "A man *of generosity* will gain friends."

349. The abridged predicate, whether in the form of the participle or infinitive, may receive the same additions as it would receive in the un-

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perform precisely the same offices as the complete forms. "*That he was a foreigner*, (231) = *his being a foreigner*, prevented his election." "I knew *that he was a foreigner*" (295) = "I knew *his being*, or *of his being a foreigner*." "The fact *that he was a foreigner*, (294) = *of his being a foreigner*, was undeniable." "*When he was first called a foreigner*, (305) = *on his being first called a foreigner*, his anger was excited." In all these abridged forms, neither "foreigner" nor any other one word, but the whole combination, takes the place of its corresponding clause. In the first example, the combination, especially "being a foreigner," is in the nominative case; but that fact does not require the single word "foreigner" to be in that case. In the other examples, the same form is in the objective case; but the word "foreigner" is not hence in the objective any more in the abridged than in the complete form. Therefore, though the whole combination may be either in the nominative or objective case, each word, taken separately, may have its own construction, (see 187, *a.*); and since "foreigner" was in the nominative (pred. nom.) originally, and nothing has taken place to change its case, it must still remain as the predicate-nominative of an abridged proposition. Hence, in abridging the following proposition, "I was not aware that it was he," we should say, "*of its being he*," not "*his* nor '*him*."

changed form; as, "When he came *into the city* = coming *into the city*;" to come *into the city*.

(*a.*) The participle may be used wholly as an adjective, and be placed before the noun; as, "The man *who labors*" = "The *laboring* man;" or it may retain some of the characteristics of the clause from which it is derived, and be placed after the noun; as, "Those *who live upon the sea-shore*" = "Those *living upon the sea-shore*."

350. The participial construction may be employed to abridge adverbial clauses, when it can be used to limit a noun, and at the same time denote some circumstance of the principal verb; as, "*Because he was unable to persuade the multitude*, he left in disgust" = "*Being unable*, or *Unable to persuade*," &c.; "He fell, *clinging to the branches*."

351. The nominative absolute is employed when the subject is not omitted, (344, *b.*) and the attribute is used as an adjective agreeing with it; as, "Jesus conveyed himself away, a *multitude being in that place*."

352. This construction is employed chiefly in abridging adverbial clauses denoting *time* or *cause*.

Exercise 58.

Abridge the subordinate clauses in the following sentences, by employing the participial construction, or the nominative absolute, and explain the changes: —

When Elizabeth was queen, Bacon was lord chancellor. A necessitous man, *who gives costly dinners*, pays large sums to be laughed at. Dr. Franklin, *who was the projector of many useful institutions*, was bred a printer. Honors *which are bestowed upon the illustrious dead*, have in them

no admixture of envy. *As we were passing through the straits*, we were detained by a dense fog. *Because some truths are difficult of comprehension*, the weak reject them.

Expand the following abridged forms into clauses, and explain the changes: —

Privileged individuals, *surrounded by parasites, sycophants, and deceivers*, too often become the willing victims of self-delusion. *Undelighted amidst all delight*, and *joyless amidst all enjoyment*, they eventually receive the full measure of the punishment of their folly, their profligacy, or their vice. *Analogy being a powerful weapon*, we should be extremely cautious in using it.

353. The infinitive is employed chiefly to abridge substantive clauses introduced by "that;" as, "*That one should steal*, is base" = "*For one to steal*, (194,) is base."

354. The infinitive is employed to abridge adverbial clauses denoting a purpose, (226;) as, "He went *that he might see* = *to see.*"

(*a.*) When the subject of the final clause (324) is retained, (344, *b.*) it is put in the objective case after "for;" as, "I have brought a book *for you to read.*" "For" governs not "you" alone, but "you to read," in the same manner as some transitive verbs govern a double object. (120, 210.)

(*b.*) Formerly, "for" was employed to govern the infinitive of purpose, when used without its subject; as, "What went ye out *for to see?*"

355. Substantive clauses of an interrogative nature, (274,) are generally abridged by employing some noun which shall express the general idea of the clause; as, "I know not where he is concealed" = "I know not the *place* of his concealment."

356. The participial noun is employed to

abridge both *substantive* and *adverbial* clauses. In the latter case, it generally follows a preposition; as, "When we arrived at the pier, all was commotion" = "On our arriving at the pier, all was commotion."

Exercise 59.

Analyze and explain the following sentences according to the previous principles: —

The atrocious crime of being a young man, I shall neither attempt to palliate or deny. He had been there but a short time, before the old man alighted from his gig, with the apparent intention of becoming his guest. Such persons commence by being their own masters, and finish by being their own slaves. I have brought a book for you to read. Trusting in God, implies a belief in him.

Expand the above abridged clauses to complete clauses.

Reduce the following miscellaneous complex sentences by abridging the subordinate clauses: —

The belief that there is a plurality of gods, is inconsistent with reason. Nothing more completely baffles one who is full of trick and duplicity himself, than straightforward, simple integrity in another. Johnson declared that wit consists in finding out resemblances.

Combine the following simple sentences, so as to make one complex sentence out of the first and second, another out of the third and fourth, and so on; then abridge the subordinate clause: —

We left. The sun set. A sudden noise alarmed us. We were sitting under a tree. He will retire from business. He has accumulated a fortune. He means well.

He makes many blunders. The peaches fall to the ground. Charles shakes the tree. He will spend four years in the country. He will attend to agricultural pursuits.

MODEL. We left *when the sun set* = *at sunset.*

NOTE. Before closing this section, a word or two is necessary respecting the influence of *tense* upon the abridged form. Tense, in subordinate clauses, is not reckoned from the time of the speaker, (as in principal clauses,) but from the time of the action or event mentioned in the principal clause. (78, *b.*) Hence, when the verb of the principal clause is in the past tense, that of the subordinate clause must also be in the past tense, if it denotes a time present with that of the event; but it must be in the past perfect tense, if it denotes a time past in reference to a past event. Thus, in the sentence "I believed that he was honest," "was," though in the past tense, denotes a time present with "believed." Hence, in abridging this clause, the present of the infinitive should be employed; as, "I believed him *to be* honest." But in the sentence "I believed that he had been honest," "had been" denotes not only time past, but time *completed*, (81, *b.*) in reference to "believed." Hence, in abridging this clause, the past perfect of the infinitive should be used; as, "I believed him to *have been* honest." The same principles apply to the participles; as, "When we *saw* the shower approaching, we *sought* the nearest shelter" = "*Seeing* the shower approaching, we *sought*," &c. "When the shower *had passed*, we *resumed* our journey" = "The shower *having passed*, we *resumed* our journey." In adverbial clauses denoting time, the connective indicates the relative time of the subordinate clause, (312, 313;) the preposition performs a similar office in phrases denoting time. (224, *c.* and 79, *c.*)

NOTE TO TEACHERS. It will often be found convenient, in analyzing sentences, to vary the models. When it is desirable to impress upon the mind of the pupil the *forms* of the elements, he should follow the models strictly. At other times, it will be sufficient to say of an element, that it is the *subject*, *predicate*, or that it *limits* one of these, without giving its particular class. Sometimes it is well to parse a *phrase* or *clause* as if it was a single word. Thus, "when you call," in "I will go when you call," is an adverb, or is of the nature of an adverb, and limits "will go," by Rule IX.

CHAPTER IV.

(COMPOUND SENTENCES.)

COÖRDINATE CLAUSES.

357. A compound sentence is formed by uniting two or more principal clauses, (see 263); as, "A wise son maketh a glad father; but a foolish son is the heaviness of his mother."

358. The clauses which are thus united, are *co-ordinate* with each other. (149.)

(*a*.) A compound sentence is formed by uniting two similar simple sentences, just as a compound element (149) is formed by uniting two similar simple elements.

(*b*.) A compound *sentence* differs from a complex, precisely as a compound *element* differs from a complex. In a complex sentence, one clause enters in as a constituent element of the other, either as its subject, attribute, object, modifier, &c.; but in a compound sentence, one clause is in no way a part of the other. It is composed of two distinct and independent parts. A compound sentence may be distinguished from a complex, by the connectives used. No connective can join coördinate *clauses* which may not also join coördinate *parts* of a clause.

(*c*.) All coördinate conjunctions are used primarily to connect clauses; but when the clauses have some part in common, that part is generally inserted but once, and the conjunction is used to connect only the other parts; as, "*Some men sin* frequently, and *some men sin* presumptuously" = "*Some men sin* frequently and presumptuously." (Turn to Exercise 28, page 78, and extend each sentence by repeating the part in common.)

359. Coördinate clauses may be divided into three classes, according to the connective used, (157,) *copulative*, *adversative*, and *alternative*.

360. The coördinate parts of a compound sen

tence may be either simple or complex sentences; as, "Give me a book, *and* I will give you a slate." "The miser has lived poor, that he may die rich; *and* if the prodigal quits life in debt to others, the miser quits it still deeper in debt to himself."

SECTION I.

COPULATIVE COÖRDINATE CLAUSES.

361. When one clause is so united to another as to express an additional thought, and thereby give a greater extent to its meaning, it is called *copulative;* as, "Fingal bade his sails to rise, *and* the winds came rustling from their hills."

362. When the copulative clause denotes addition without emphasis or modification, the simple conjunction *and* is used.

363. If we wish to awaken an expectation of some additional thought, and thereby introduce it with emphasis, the conjunction has a *correlative* placed in the first clause; as, "*Not only* did the wind blow most fiercely, *but* the rain fell in torrents."

(*a.*) The coördinate conjunctions, with their correlatives, are, *both . . . and; as well . . . as; not only . . . but, but also, but likewise.* These correlatives are most commonly used to connect coördinate parts of the same clause; as, "He was *both* virtuous *and* wise = *not only* virtuous, *but* wise."

364. It is often necessary to associate with "and" some other word, which shall give a shade

of meaning to the added clause, not expressed by the principal conjunction; as, "Susan is learning music, and, *besides*, she attends to drawing."

(*a.*) These associate or auxiliary connectives are *so*, *also*, *likewise*, *too*, which denote *resemblance*, and give additional force to the meaning of the second clause; *besides*, *moreover*, and *now*, which are often used in argument, to enforce an additional objection; *hence*, *therefore*, *consequently*, *wherefore*, *then*, which represent the coördinate clause as an inference from the preceding; *even*, which gives peculiar force by expressing something unusual or beyond expectation.

365. When the principal conjunction is understood, the auxiliary remains as the only connective, giving its peculiar force to the coördinate clause; as, "The storm has abated; *therefore* let us resume our journey;" "Demosthenes was a distinguished orator, [and] Cicero was *also* an eminent orator."

(*a.*) These connectives partake of the nature of adverbs, and, unlike the principal conjunction, may be placed within the second clause. It is to this class of connectives that all deductive particles are to be referred. (315, Note.)

Model for analyzing Compound Sentences.

Cæsar has refused his consent, and there remains no hope of my speedy restoration.

It is a compound sentence, because it contains two similar clauses, (both principal.)

Cæsar has refused his consent, is the first clause.

There remains no hope, &c., is the second clause.

It is a copulative clause, coördinate with the first, and is connected with it by "and," which joins the two clauses as elements of a compound sentence

Analyze each of the coördinate parts according to the previous models.

NOTE. All compound sentences should be analyzed in a similar manner. These sentences are far less difficult than complex. The force of coördinate conjunctions is much sooner appreciated by children than that of subordinate. Hence children, and nations in the simplest states of society, employ these connectives first. The parts of a compound sentence often succeed each other without a connective, being separated by a colon or semicolon.

EXERCISE 60.

Analyze the following sentences, and tell whether the second clause expresses addition simply, addition with emphasis, (363,) *or addition modified by some associated particle,* (364.)

I was eyes to the blind, and feet was I to the lame. This part of knowledge has been growing, and it will continue to grow till the subject be exhausted. I conceived a great regard for him, and I could not but mourn for the loss he had sustained. The more sleek the prey, the greater the temptation; and no wolf will leave a sheep, to dine upon a porcupine. Not only am I instructed by this exercise, but I am also invigorated. Religion, as well as its votaries, must have a body as well as a soul. (363, *a.*) A hero on the day of battle has sacrificed a meal, and shall we therefore pity him? (364.) Wisdom was their object, and they attained even more than that object. The poor lady is suffering from a fever; her children are likewise ill. The situation is not suited to his tastes; the compensation, moreover, is meagre. Green is the most refreshing color to the eye; hence Providence has made it the common dress of nature.

SECTION II.

ADVERSATIVE COÖRDINATE CLAUSES.

366. An adversative coördinate clause is one which stands opposed to, or contrasted with, the preceding clause; yet both are so united as to form one compound sentence.

367. The simple adversative conjunction is *but*; as, "We esteem most things according to their intrinsic merit; *but* it is strange that man should be an exception."

368. When we wish to represent the first clause as a *concession*, we place near the beginning of it the correlative *indeed*, which points forward to *but* as the connective of something opposed to the admission; as, "I did, *indeed*, grant his request; *but* I took him to be a gentleman."

(*a.*) The following correlatives are sometimes used to connect adversative clauses: — *on the one hand . . . . on the other; at one time . . . . at another; now . . . . then.*

369. With *but* are often associated other words in the same clause, which become the sole connective when the principal connective is understood.

(*a.*) These are *yet*, *still*, *however*, *nevertheless*, *now*, and many of those mentioned in ¶ 364, (*a.*)

Exercise 61.

Analyze the following sentences, pointing out the same distinctions as in the preceding exercise: —

What he says is indeed true, but it is not applicable to the

point. I strenuously opposed those measures, but it was not in my power to prevent them. We submit to the society of those that can inform us, but we seek the society of those whom we can inform. Vice stings us even in our pleasures, but virtue consoles us even in our pains. Tiger hunting is very fine amusement so long as we hunt the tiger; but it is rather awkward, when the tiger takes it into his head to hunt us. They have, indeed, honored them with their praise, but they have disgraced them with their pity. Some men know but little of their profession, but yet they often succeed in life better than those whose attainments they can never reach. Straws swim upon the surface; but pearls lie upon the bottom. A clownish air is but a small defect; still (369) it is enough to make a man disagreeable. The locusts have no king, yet go they forth all of them by bands.

SECTION III.

ALTERNATIVE COÖRDINATE CLAUSES.

370. Alternative clauses are such as offer or deny a choice between two propositions; as, "We must conquer, or our liberties are lost."

371. The simple conjunctions used to connect such clauses, are, *or*, *nor*, (= *not or*,) *neither*, (= *not either*.)

372. The alternative is made emphatic by placing the correlatives *either* or *neither* in the first clause; as, "I shall *neither* go myself *nor* shall I send any one."

(*a.*) *Neither . . . nor*, *either . . . or*, more commonly show an alternative between two elements of the same clause; as, "He was *neither* wise *nor* careful;" "*Either* George *or* his brother will come."

373. The connectives *otherwise* and *else* are often associated with *or*, and may represent it when understood; as, "Learn your lesson; *otherwise* you must lose your rank."

Exercise 62.

Analyze the following sentences as in the two preceding exercises: —

A jest is not an argument; nor is a loud laugh a demonstration. I neither learned wisdom, nor have I a knowledge of the holy. He either left the key in the door [or] else the robber had a false key. Christianity must be the true religion, (373;) otherwise all the religions in the world are but fables.

> For them no more the blazing hearth shall burn,
> Or busy housewife ply her evening care;
> No children run to lisp their sire's return,
> Or climb his knees the envied kiss to share.
>
> Can honor's voice provoke the silent dust,
> Or flattery soothe the dull, cold ear of death?

I have none; else would I give it. He is either sick or fatigued, (372, *a.*) I neither knew what I was, where I was, nor from whence I came.

Add either copulative, adversative, or alternative clauses to each of the following simple sentences.

We must conquer. The debt must be paid. The child will be relieved soon. He has returned. The lecture has either been very long. He has not the strength to accomplish the work. We must retreat.

SECTION IV

RECAPITULATION.

374. We have now exhibited all the forms of *words*, *phrases*, and *clauses*, which enter into the structure of the English language. The following recapitulation will give a condensed view of their principal uses: —

375. In reviewing the preceding chapters, the learner will observe that any sentence is composed of *essential parts* and *connectives*.

376. The essential parts are of the nature of a *substantive*, *adjective*,* or *adverb*. (176, 189, 269.) These parts may enter into the structure of a sentence, either in the form of a *single word*, a *phrase*, or a *clause*.

377. The *substantive* (word, phrase, or clause) may enter into the structure of a sentence in three relations, — as *subject*, as *attribute*, (either *assumed* or *predicated*,) or as *object*.

378. The *adjective* (word, phrase, or clause) may enter into the structure of a sentence, first, as a *modifier*, and, secondly, (with the exception of the clause,) as the *attribute of a proposition*.

379. The *adverb* (word, phrase, or clause) is used as a *modifier*.

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* It should be borne in mind, that *adjective*, as here used, includes the attributive part of the verb. (24, 35, *a*.)

380. The *adjective element*, in either class, is used to *limit* merely; — to limit by denoting *quality*, to limit by denoting *identity*, or to limit by denoting *possession*.

381. The *objective element*, in either class, is used to complete the meaning of a transitive verb.

382. The *adverbial element*, in either class, denotes the *place*, *time*, *cause*, or *manner* of an action.

383. Each element is subject to three conditions; it may be *simple*, *complex*, or *compound*.

(*a.*) When the subordinate elements are *simple*, the *adjective* belongs to the subject, (except when the predicate-nominative is used;) the *objective* belongs to the predicate, (used only with transitive verbs;) the *adverbial* belongs to the predicate. When any one of these elements is *complex*, it may be formed by a union of either or all the others, so that an adverbial or objective element may be found in the subject, or an adjective in the predicate.

384. The following table exhibits the different forms of the elements in the *simple*, the *complex*, or the *compound sentence*: —

	Adj. + Sub. : : Pred. + *Obj.* + *Adv.*					
Class	1	1	1	1	1	} Simple.
Class	2	2	2	2	2	}
Class	3	3	3	3	3	Complex.

Adj. + S. : P. + *Obj.* + *Adv.*							*Adj.* + S : P. + *Obj.* + *Adv.*						
1	1	1	1	1	}	+ *	1	1	1	1	1	}	Comp
2	2	2	2	2	}		2	2	2	2	2	}	
3	3	3	3	3	}		3	3	3	3	3	}	

* The different coördinate conjunctions bear some resemblance to the three algebraic signs, +, —, ±; the first representing the *copulative*, the second, the *adversative*, the third, the *alternative*.

385. These elements are united by connectives.

386. The subject and predicate are united by the *copula*, either distinct or involved in the verb.

387. The other elements are united either *subordinately* or *coördinately*.

388. Subordinate elements are united *immediately*, if of the first class, — by means of *prepositions*, if of the second, — by means of *relative pronouns*, *conjunctions*, or *conjunctive adverbs*, if of the third

389. Coördinate elements of either class are connected by conjunctions.

390. Conjunctions, or conjunctive words, are divided into two classes, — *coördinate* and *subordinate*. The former are used in compound or partial compound sentences, and the latter in complex.

391. The coördinate conjunctions are often placed at the beginning of an entire sentence, or even a paragraph. They then connect the thought contained in the sentence or paragraph which follows, to that which precedes.

(*a*.) Sometimes subordinate connectives, especially *for* and *because*, are placed at the beginning of an entire sentence. In such cases, some principal clause is understood; as, [It is so,] "For I delight in the law of God after the inner man."

(*b*.) It is worthy of notice, that coördinate conjunctions are employed to connect elements of the same class as well as the same rank; whereas subordinate connectives join elements differing both in rank and class; as, "I KNOW *that the eye of the public is upon me*, AND *that* I *shall be held responsible for every act*;" "I will sustain the STATEMENT *which I have made*.

CHAPTER V.

VARIOUS PROPERTIES OF SENTENCES.

SECTION I.

SENTENCES CONSIDERED AS A WHOLE.

392. In the preceding chapters, we have examined the different species of words, phrases, and clauses, which enter into the formation of a sentence. We are now to regard the sentence as a complete structure, entering in as a component part of a paragraph.

393. Sentences thus considered are divided into four classes, — *declarative*, *interrogative*, *imperative*, and *exclamatory*.

394. A declarative sentence is a declaration or statement, either affirmative or negative, and is the appropriate form for narrative and didactic composition.

395. An interrogative sentence is a question, either direct or indirect, and is the appropriate form to be employed in seeking for information or gaining the assent of others.

(*a*.) In questions for gaining assent, *not* should be inserted if we expect an affirmative answer, and omitted if we expect a negative; as, "Is there *not* an appointed time to man on the earth?" [Yes.] "Doth God pervert judgment?" [No.] Hence,

(*b*.) If *not* is found in the question, it should be omitted

in the answer, and should be inserted in the answer when it is not found in the question; as, "There is an appointed time to man on the earth;" "God doth *not* pervert judgment."

396. An imperative sentence is used to express a command, an entreaty, an exhortation, or a prayer; as, "Let us go;" "May the truth prevail."

(*a.*) Of this kind of sentence there are two forms, — one in which the verb is in the imperative mode, and one in which it is in the potential. (See the above examples.)

(*b.*) An imperative sentence, when uttered by one who has authority, is a command; when uttered by one without authority, is nothing more than an exhortation or entreaty; when uttered by an inferior, is a prayer.

397. An exclamatory sentence is either a declarative, interrogative, or imperative sentence, so uttered as to express passion or emotion; as, "The foe is gone!" "Was it not strange!" "Make haste!"

(*a.*) Exclamatory sentences are often so elliptical as to become mere fragments of a sentence; as, *Strange! Impossible!*

(*b.*) Exclamatory expressions are often of the nature of the interjection; as, *Mercy! Goodness! How strange!*

398. Each kind of sentence may be *simple*, *complex*, or *compound*. The compound may be either partial or complete. (See note at the bottom of page 75.)

399. The parts of a compound sentence may be all of the same species, that is, all declarative, all interrogative, &c.; or they may be of different species; as, "Give me the means, and I will cause the work to be completed;" "He came, but where is he now?"

(*a.*) Such sentences are called *mixed;* they may be formed by uniting any two of the four species of sentences

Models for analyzing a Paragraph.

Note. After the general character of a sentence has been given, it may be analyzed according to the preceding models.

But for what else can you find no leisure? Do you find none for amusement? Or is amusement itself your occupation? Perhaps pleasure is the pressing business of your life; perhaps pleasure stands waiting to catch your precious moments as they pass. Do you find none for the pursuit of secular knowledge? If you find none, then, for religion, it is perhaps because you wish to find none; it would be, you think, a tasteless occupation, an insipid entertainment.

The first sentence is a simple, indirect interrogative sentence. The second is a simple, direct interrogative sentence. The third the same. The fourth is a compound declarative sentence; the first part is simple, the second complex, (360.) The fifth is a simple, direct interrogative sentence. The sixth is a compound declarative sentence having two parts, both complex.

Exercise 63.

Analyze the following paragraphs: —

Again, it is said, Am I not as good as others? Why is an attention to religion, an unpopular piety, a rigid virtue, required of me, which cannot be found in the circle of my acquaintance, or in the world at large? Why am I urged to set up as a reformer, or expose myself to the scorn of mankind? But the majority of men are poor. Does this, however, check the ardor of your pursuit of wealth? or do you avoid a new acquisition, because you fear it will expose you to the envy of your inferiors? The majority of

mankind are ignorant. But is ignorance therefore honorable, or is learning contemptible or invidious?

The first emotions which touched my breast were those of mingled pity and veneration. But how soon were all my feelings changed! The lips of Plato were never more worthy of a prognostic swarm of bees, than were the lips of this holy man. It was a day of the administration of the sácrament; and his subject, of course, was the passion of our Savior. I had heard the subject handled a thousand times: I had thought it exhausted long ago. Little did I suppose, that, in the wild woods of America, I was to meet with a man whose eloquence would give to this topic a new and more sublime pathos than I had ever before witnessed.

SECTION II.

ARRANGEMENT OF THE ELEMENTS.

400. The arrangement of an element is the *position* which it takes in the sentence.

401. There are two kinds of arrangement;— that which is usual, called the *natural* or *grammatical* order; and that in which the elements are transposed, called the *inverted* or *rhetorical* order.

I.—*ARRANGEMENT OF THE PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.*

402. In declarative sentences, the subject is placed before the predicate, the copula before the

attribute, and the auxiliary before the principal verb; as, "Cæsar conquered;" "Life is short." "James will write."

403. Inversion takes place when the predicate is made emphatic; as, "Great is Diana of the Ephesians;" "Known unto God are all his works."

(*a.*) In such cases, the subject is generally placed between the attribute and copula, or the auxiliary and principal verb.

(*b.*) Inversion takes place in sentences introduced by *there*, (35, *b.* 196, *a.*) or in sentences following *nor* or *neither*.

404. In direct interrogative sentences, the copula or auxiliary is placed first, the subject next, and the attribute or principal verb last; as, "Is he well?" "Can you go?"

(*a.*) When the predicate is a simple form of the verb, it is placed before the subject; as, "*Say* you this without a blush?"

405. In indirect interrogative sentences, the interrogative is placed first, and the other parts are generally arranged as in direct interrogative sentences; as, "When did he come?"

(*a.*) When the interrogative pronoun is in the nominative case, it stands before the predicate; as, "Who comes there?"

(*b.*) When the attribute is the subject of inquiry, it should be placed before the copula, and the subject should be placed last; as, "How *high* is the tree?" "How *old* was the messenger?"

406. In imperative sentences, the subject follows the predicate, or is placed between the copula and attribute; as, "Go thou;" "Be ye content."

407. Exclamatory sentences follow the arrangement of the sentences from which they are derived (397.)

408. In subordinate clauses, the connective is placed first, and then the subject and predicate.

II.—*ARRANGEMENT OF THE ADJECTIVE ELEMENT*

409. The adjective element, if simple and of the first class, is placed before the noun; if of the second or third class, it is placed after the noun; as, "*Wise* men = men *of wisdom* = men *who were wise* were chosen."

(*a.*) The noun in apposition is placed after the noun which it limits; as, "George *the king*."

(*b.*) A complex adjective element is placed after the noun when it contains an element of the second or third class; as, "Men skilled *in architecture*."

(*c.*) When an adjective element is of the first class, and compound, it may be placed before or after the noun; as, "Pure and ardent devotion," or "Devotion pure and ardent."

(*d.*) When an adjective limits the complex idea expressed by another adjective and noun, it must be placed before them both; as, "*All* good men;" "*That* distinguished officer."

III.—*ARRANGEMENT OF THE OBJECTIVE AND ADVERBIAL ELEMENTS.*

410. The objective element of either class is placed after a transitive verb, and generally precedes the adverbial element; as, "Susan painted the *picture elegantly;*" "I know *that my Redeemer liveth.*"

411. The indirect object precedes the direct, when the preposition is omitted; otherwise it fol-

ows it; as, "We gave *him* money;" "We gave money *to him.*"

412. Inversion of the objective element takes place frequently in poetry, but seldom in prose; as, "Copernicus *these wonders* told."

(*a*) As the relation of words in English is determined chiefly by their position, inversion of the object often renders the meaning of a sentence ambiguous; as "Cæsar Brutus loved." Either "Cæsar" or "Brutus" may be the object of "loved." When the pronoun is used, inversion may take place without obscuring the sense; as, "*Him* followed his next mate."

413. The adverbial element of either class is placed after the word which it limits; as, "The letter was written *correctly;*" "He remained *in Philadelphia;*" "We shall leave *as soon as the storm abates.*"

(*a.*) As a general rule, an adverbial element of the first class is placed before one of the second, and one of the second before one of the third; as, "He went EARLY *in the morning;*" "Some persons beg their daily happiness FROM DOOR TO DOOR, *as beggars do their daily bread.*"

414. Inversions take place more frequently in the adverbial element than in any other.

415. The simple adverb is often placed between the copula and attribute, or between the auxiliary and verb; as, "I shall *immediately* send for him;" "He is *now* convalescent."

(*a.*) Modal adverbs, and such as modify the whole sentence, are often placed at the beginning; as, "*Perhaps* he will do it."

416. Adverbial elements of either class may be placed in either of three positions, — 1st, in their natural position after the predicate; 2d, between the subject and predicate; or, 3d, at the head of the sentence.

EXAMPLES

1st Class. { He examined the document *carefully*.
He *carefully* examined the document.
Carefully did he examine the document.

2d Class. { He invaded the country *with a large army*.
He, *with a large army*, invaded the country.
With a large army, he invaded the country.

3d Class. { Flowers will bloom, *when spring comes*.
Flowers, *when spring comes*, will bloom.
When spring comes, flowers will bloom.

417. In compound sentences, the clauses are successive. One can never be interposed between the parts of another.

NOTE. The perspicuity, harmony, strength, and beauty of a sentence often depend upon a skilful arrangement of its elements. No definite rules for arrangement can be given to guide the learner in all cases; he must rely mainly upon his own judgment, aided by the suggestions of his teacher. He will find it an excellent exercise, to take some well-written paragraph, and rearrange all its sentences, then compare the new arrangement with the old, and decide upon their merits.

EXERCISE 64.

Show which elements in the following sentences are arranged grammatically, and which are inverted: —

Powerful was the king of Alba; numerous were his armies; mighty his people. Two hemispheres acknowledged his sway. The sun rose in glory on his eastern cities, and set in splendor o'er his western people. As the trunk of a luxuriant tree borne down by its branches, so was the kingdom of Alba in the midst of its dependencies. The precursors of a storm were seen in the west; a majes-

tic figure emerged from the gloom; the wreath of freedom decorated her brow; her breastplate was the shield of faith. Superstition trembled at her coming. Tyranny fled before her footsteps. At her voice the wilderness blossomed, and the desert became as the peopled city.

Point out the inversions in the following sentences, and show what element is transposed: —

Great is the theme, though weak the lay. Because the night was dark, they did not proceed. With regard to morality, I was not indifferent. On the following day, they walked together in the garden.

Seven circling planets I behold,
Their different orbits all describe.

Whom, therefore, ye ignorantly worship, him declare I unto you. Anxiously did we watch every movement.

Take some inverted passage of poetry and arrange it grammatically.

Arrange the following displaced elements so that they will make sense: —

He himself as well as he could concealed, and hasten on Thomas bade. We our cause, by calling in that which is weak injure often, to support that is strong which. The world we in others approving follow, but in ourselves approving before it go. Of our population, the march west ward, with consequences, in some degree has been attended, novel, in the human mind history of. Greatness his unsearchable is, and past finding out ways his. Of the new year what the charm is?

Improve the arrangement of the following sentences: —

Impart to them, in addition to their hereditary valor, that confidence of success which springs from thy presence. The long voyage he has to make, to an American visiting

Ea[illegible]e, is an excellent preparative. He will make order, at last, to arise from the seeming confusion of the world, who made light to spring from primeval darkness. If he was not the greatest king, he was the greatest actor of majesty at least, that ever filled the throne. He has not only disturbed our domestic, but our social relations.

SECTION III.

PECULIARITIES OF STRUCTURE.

418. Peculiarities of structure may refer to entire sentences or to their component parts.

I.—*PECULIARITIES IN THE STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES.*

419. A sentence may be either *loose* or *compact.*

(*a.*) These are qualities belonging to complex or compound sentences.

(*b.*) Compact structure is often called *periodic*, and a compact sentence, a *period.*

420. A loose sentence is one in which the parts are related in thought, but are wholly independent of each other in construction; as, "Three days they mourned over Carthon: on the fourth, his father died."

(*a.*) The loose sentence is to be found chiefly among compound sentences.

(*b.*) The parts of a loose sentence are called its *members.* They may be either *simple*, *complex*, or *compound.*

(*c.*) Each member contains a distinct thought, and is uttered

as if it were a complete sentence; the voice falls at the end of each member.

421. A compact sentence is one in which the parts are closely united both in thought and construction; as, "Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him."

(*a.*) This property belongs both to compound and complex sentences. The latter are seldom loose.

(*b.*) In uttering compact sentences, the voice is kept up till the close.

(*c.*) Compact sentences are most closely united by means of correlatives.

Exercise 65.

Tell which of the following sentences are compact, and which are loose.

These minor comforts are all important in the estimation of narrow minds; and they either do not perceive, or will not acknowledge, that they are more than counterbalanced among us by great and generally diffused blessings. Let those who would affect singularity with success, first determine to be very virtuous, and they will be sure to be very singular. A revengeful knave will do more than he will say; a grateful one, will say more than he will do. We are sure to be losers when we quarrel with ourselves; it is a civil war, and in all such contentions, triumphs are defeats. When a man has displayed talent in some particular path, and left all competitors behind him in it, the world are too apt to give him credit for a universality of genius, and to anticipate for him success in all that he undertakes.

Write ten sentences, — five compact and five loose.

II. — *PECULIARITIES IN THE USE OF THE PARTS OF A SENTENCE.*

422. Any departure from the ordinary rules of construction is called a *figure*. The following are the principal figures which affect the construction of words.

423. *Ellipsis* is the omission of a word, phrase, or clause, which is necessary to complete the construction.

(*a.*) Ellipsis should be distinguished from *abridgment*. (341.) In ellipsis some word is left out, but in abridgment an expression is shortened by a change of construction.

(*b.*) Ellipsis differs from *contraction*. By contraction a compound sentence, having some one element or more in common, is reduced to a partial compound by using the common part but once; as, "Cicero *was a distinguished orator*, and Demosthenes *was a distinguished orator*" = "Cicero and Demosthenes *were distinguished orators*." Although this last sentence is sometimes said to be elliptical, nothing is necessary to complete the construction.

(*c.*) Ellipsis should be distinguished from a careless omission of words necessary alike to the construction and meaning.

424. Ellipsis generally takes place in exclamatory sentences, (397,) in responsives, in clauses denoting comparison, (333, *a.*) in inscriptions and titles, and after connectives; as, "Strange!" = "*It is* strange." "Whom did you see? George = *I saw* George." "The New Testament" = "*This is* the New Testament." "He is older than I = than I am old."

425. *Pleonasm* is the opposite of ellipsis. It is

the use of superfluous words; as, "I know *thee who thou art;*" "*Verily, verily,* I say unto you."

(*a.*) Pleonasm should be distinguished from *expansion.* The former consists in adding an element to express what has been already expressed, whereas the latter consists in changing the form of an expression for a more extended form, as an adverb, an adjective, or a noun, for an equivalent phrase or clause.

(*b.*) Pleonasm is allowable only in animated discourse, when an idea is to be rendered emphatic.

426. *Enallage*, which means *exchange*, is the use of one word or form for another.

427. Enallage may refer either to the *form* or *meaning* of words.

428. By enallage, as it respects the form of words, —

(*a.*) One part of speech may be used for another; as, "They fall *successive*[ly] and *successive*[ly] rise."

(*b.*) One number may be used for another; as, *we* for *I*, *you* for *thou.*

(*c.*) One tense may be used for another; as, "He *riseth* from supper, and *laid* aside his garments," &c.

NOTE. When a past or future tense is exchanged for the present, the figure is called *vision*, that is, *seeing* past or future events as if present.

429. Enallage, as it respects the meaning of words, gives rise to several figures, called *tropes.*

430 The principal tropes are, *metaphor*, *personification*, *metonymy*, *synecdoche*, and *irony.*

431 *Metaphor* gives to an object the appropriate name of another object, on account of some resemblance between them; as, "Man! thou *pendulum* betwixt a smile and tear."

(*a.*) When the resemblance is stated formally, the figure is called a *simile;* as, "They rushed through *like* a *hurricane.*"

(*b.*) A continued metaphor is called an *allegory.*

432. *Personification* attributes to inanimate objects some of the qualities of living beings; as, "The sky *saddens* with the gathered storm."

(*a.*) These two figures generally produce some change in the use of pronouns; as when we apply the feminine pronoun *she* (not *it*) to the moon; or when we say of a statesman, "He is the pillar *which* (not *who*) supports the state."

433. *Metonymy* is a change of name. It gives to one object the name of another which is related to it; as, *crown* for *king*, *chair* for *president.*

434. *Synecdoche* is the use of a part for the whole, or the whole for a part; as, *roof* for *house.*

435. *Irony* is the use of a word for its opposite.

436. *Hyperbaton* is the transposition of words.

(*a.*) This figure has already been explained in Sec. II. of this chapter

Exercise 66.

Tell what figures are used in the following sentences: —

A Greek Dictionary. Impossible! Go. He speaks as if he had been sick. I saw it with *my eyes.* He walked *on foot. Dark* burned the candle. For Renard *close* attended at his heels. And he *taketh* with him Peter, and James and John, and *began* to be sore amazed. Devotion is a delicate and tender *plant.* The cherished fields *put on their winter robe* of purest white. The boy has read *Virgil.* They have *Moses* and the *prophets.* His arm is *conquest*, and his frown is *fate.* This *roof* protects you He was as *virtuous* as Nero, and as *patriotic* as Arnold.

SECTION IV.

EQUIVALENTS.

437. Two different *expressions*, meaning the same thing or nearly the same, are called *equivalents*; as, "Xerxes ordered *that Mardonius should remain in Greece* = *Mardonius to remain in Greece.*"

(*a.*) Equivalent expressions often have shades of difference in meaning. In the above example, the first Italicized form implies that the command was given in a general way; the second, that it was given personally to Mardonius.

(*b.*) Equivalents in signification are by no means equivalents in grammatical construction; nor is the grammatical construction of one form accounted for by explaining that of its equivalent.

438. Two different *words*, meaning the same thing, or nearly the same, are called *synonymes*; as, *relinquish* = *abandon.*

(*a.*) There are, in most cases, shades of difference between words considered as synonymous.

439. By means of equivalents, synonymes, or both, any sentence may be materially changed in form, with little or no change in meaning.

440. In simple sentences we may obtain equivalent forms, —

(*a.*) By denying the opposite of that which is affirmed; as, "He was *not unskilful*" = "He was *skilful*;" —

(*b.*) By using the passive for the active voice, or the active for the passive; as, "Columbus discovered America" = "America was discovered by Columbus;" —

(*c.*) By expanding or abridging an element (178, *b.*); as, "A *morning* ride is refreshing" = "A ride *in the morning* is refreshing;" —

(*d.*) By using the expletive *it* (196, *a.*); as, "To see the sun is pleasant" = "*It* is pleasant to see the sun."

NOTE. Synonymes may be employed with any of these changes

441. A simple sentence may be changed to a complex by expanding any one of its elements into a proposition; as, "*Having completed his discovery*, Hudson descended the river" = "*After he had completed his discovery*," &c.

442. A complex sentence may be changed to an equivalent simple sentence by abridging its subordinate clause. (342.)

443. A complex sentence may be changed to an equivalent complex sentence, —

(*a.*) By making any of the changes mentioned in ¶ 440, *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, in either of its clauses; —

(*b.*) By using various equivalent connectives, as, *when* for *as* or *as soon as*.

(*c.*) By using the expletive *it*. (See 282.)

444. A complex sentence may be changed to a compound, by raising its subordinate clause to an equal rank with the principal; as, "When spring comes, the flowers will bloom" = "Spring comes, and the flowers bloom."

445. A compound sentence may be changed to a complex, by making one of its clauses subordinate; as, "Man has a moral sense, and, therefore,

he is an accountable being" = "Since man has a moral sense, he is an accountable being."

446. A compound sentence may be changed to an equivalent compound, by altering either of its clauses. (440, *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*.)

447. A question for gaining assent may be changed into a declarative sentence, or a declarative sentence into a question for gaining assent. (See 395.)

NOTE. After the learner has acquired a correct knowledge of the various forms and conditions of the elements of a sentence, perhaps no exercise, in connection with composition, will prove more beneficial than that of re-writing sentences, for the purpose of altering and improving, if possible, their form or arrangement. It is the only substitute which the mere English scholar can have for translation, an exercise which consists in obtaining equivalent forms in one language for given forms in another. It is to exercises of this kind that Dr. Franklin attributes his skill in writing. It is a sure way to give the pupil variety of expression, copiousness of diction, and a knowledge of the flexibility and power of the language. As it respects a choice of words and expressions, no rules of grammar can materially aid the learner. He should study standard authors, such as Addison, Middleton, and Irving. A perusal of these will assist him in obtaining correct forms of expression, and enable him to avoid all low and unauthorized words.

EXERCISE 67.

Alter the following sentences by using synonymes: —

Thankfulness is an agreeable feeling. They are sowing the seeds of strife. The hypocrite writhes in agony. The maid-servant is lighting the fire. They shrink from the contest. He is slaying his enemies.

MODEL. *Gratitude* is a *delightful emotion*

Take a page from your reading lesson, and make any of the changes mentioned in this section.

APPENDIX.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR teaches the principles of the English language.

These principles refer to *the formation of words* or *the formation of sentences.*

The first department embraces *orthography* and *etymology*, — the second, *syntax* and *prosody.*

NOTE. Prosody relates to the formation of sentences into verse.

Orthography treats of letters and their various combinations.

Etymology treats of the different classes of words and their various modifications.

Syntax treats of the construction of sentences.

Prosody treats of the laws of versification.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

LESSON I.

ORTHOGRAPHY treats of letters and their various combinations.

A *letter* is a character used to represent an elementary sound of the language.

The elementary sounds of the language are,—

(1.) *Vocals*,* or pure voice only; as, *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*;

(2.) *Subvocals*, or voice and breath united; as, *b*, *d*, *m*, *n*, *l*, *r*;

(3.) *Aspirates*, or pure breath only; as, *p*, *t*, *k*, *f*.

Those letters which represent the first class, are called *vowels;* those which represent the second and third, are called *consonants.*

There are only twenty-six letters of the alphabet to represent about forty elementary sounds; hence several letters are used to represent each more than one sound.

Of the twenty-six letters of the alphabet, five (*a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, and *u*) are vowels; two (*w* and *y*) are either vowels or consonants; the remaining nineteen are consonants. *W* and *y* are consonants when they precede a vowel in the same syllable; as in *wine*, *twine*, *yes*, *yet*. In any other situation they are vowels.

Ten of the consonants (*b*, *d*, *g*, *j*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, *v*, *z*) are subvocals; eight (*f*, *h*, *k*, *c*, *q*, *p*, *t*, *s*) are aspirates; *x* is a subvocal when it is equivalent to *gs*, an aspirate when it is equivalent to *ks*.

A *diphthong* is the union of two vowels in one syllable; as *ou* in *sound.*

A *proper* diphthong is one in which both vowels are sounded; as *oi* in *noise.*

An *improper* diphthong is one in which only one of the vowels is sounded; as *ea* in *heat.*

A *triphthong* is the union of three vowels in one syllable; as *eau* in *beauty.*

A *proper* triphthong is one in which the three vowels are sounded; as *uoy* in *buoy.*

An *improper* triphthong is one in which only one or two of the vowels are sounded; as *iew* in *view.*

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* It is impossible to represent these distinctions in any way except by the living voice. The pupil should, therefore, be taught to give the elementary sounds (not the name sounds) of the letters till the distinction becomes familiar

LESSON II.

SYLLABLES AND WORDS.

A *syllable* is a letter, or combination of letters, uttered by one impulse of the voice; as, *ab*, *id*. A word is either a syllable or a union of syllables; as, *mat*, *mat-ter*, *ma-te-ri-al*.

A word of one syllable is called a *monosyllable;* a word of two syllables, a *dissyllable;* a word of three syllables, a *trisyllable;* a word of four or more syllables, a *polysyllable*.

Words are either *underived*, *derived*, or *compounded*.

The first are called *radical* or *primitive* words; the second, *derivative;* the third, *compound*.

Derivative words are formed from primitives by means of some additional syllable; as, *good*, *good*ness; *real*, *real*ize; *grateful*, un*grateful*.

When the added syllable is placed before the radical word, it is called a *prefix;* as, re*prove*, im*prove*, dis*prove*, ap*prove*.

When the added syllable is placed after the radical word, it is called a *suffix;* as, *fear*ful, *fear*less, *fear*ing, *fear*ed.

Compound words are formed by uniting two primitive or derivative words; as, *book-case*, *book-binder*.

A radical word represents a single idea, — a derivative, some modification of an idea, — a compound, two distinct ideas united. It is worthy of notice, that these three classes of words bear a striking resemblance to the three classes of sentences. The simple sentence represents a single thought; in the complex sentence, that thought is modified by the subordinate clause; in the compound sentence, two distinct thoughts are united.

Derivative words may be formed either by *inflection* or by *derivation.*

By inflection the application of a word is changed, but not its classification.

It is the same part of speech after the change as before.

By derivation both the application and classification are changed, and the meaning is modified.

Thus, from the noun *fear*, we have, by inflection, the noun *fears*, which denotes more than one: from the same word, we have, by derivation, the adjectives *fearful*, *fearless*, or the adverbs *fearfully*, *fearlessly.*

ETYMOLOGY.

ETYMOLOGY treats of the different classes of words and their various modifications.

LESSON I.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

There are in English eight classes of words, called *parts of speech*, namely, the *noun*, the *pronoun*, the *adjective*, the *verb*, the *adverb*, the *preposition*, the *conjunction*, and the *interjection.*

Of these parts of speech, five (the *noun*, *pronoun*, *adjective*, *verb*, and *adverb*) are used as the constituent parts (176) of a sentence; two (the *preposition* and *conjunction*) are used as connectives of those parts; one (the *interjection*) has no grammatical construction

Conjunctive adverbs, relative pronouns, and all attributive verbs (35, *a.*) are both constituent elements and connectives.

A *noun* is the name of an object; as, *fruit*, *Henry Boston*.

A *pronoun* is a word which takes the place of a noun, as, *he*, *she*, *it*.

An *adjective* is a word used to limit or qualify the meaning of a noun; as, *good*, *faithful*, *this*, *some*.

A *verb* is a word which expresses *being*, *action*, or *state*; as, *be*, *read*, *sleep*, *is loved*.

An *adverb* is used to modify the meaning of a verb, adjective, or another adverb; as, *quickly*, *first*, *far*.

A *preposition* is a word used to show the relation between a noun or pronoun and some preceding word; as, *upon*, *on*, *with*.

A *conjunction* is a word used to connect either words phrases, or propositions; as, *and*, *but*, *or*.

An *interjection* is a word used to express some emotion of the mind; as, *oh! alas!*

LESSON II.

CLASSES OF THE NOUN AND PRONOUN.

NOTE. This lesson is referred to on page 19. It should be studied in connection with the subject of a sentence.

NOUNS.

A noun is the *name* of an object.

The word *object*, as here used, embraces every species of existence, whether material or immaterial.

PRONOUNS.

A pronoun is a word which takes the place of a noun.

The pronoun is used to represent an object as having been previously mentioned, or as

Nouns.

Nouns are divided into two classes,—*proper* and *common*

A *proper* noun is the name of an individual object; as, *James*, *Erie*.

A common noun is a name which applies to each individual of a class of objects; as, *man*, *boy*, *house*.

Under the head of common nouns are commonly reckoned *collective*, *abstract*, and *verbal* nouns.

A *collective* noun is one which, in the singular, denotes more than one object; as, *army*, *family*, *flock*.

An *abstract* noun is the name of a *property* considered apart from the object to which it belongs; as, *goodness*, *virtue*, *wisdom*.

A *verbal* noun is a *participle* used as a noun; as, "He was convicted of *stealing*."

The *infinitive* is a kind of verbal noun; as, "*To see* the sun is pleasant."

A phrase or entire proposition may be used as a noun; as, *From Boston to*

Pronoun

having some relation to the speaker.

Pronouns are divided into three classes,—*personal*, *relative*, and *interrogative*.

A personal pronoun is used both to represent a noun, and to show whether it is of the *first*, *second*, or *third* person.

Note. Relative and interrogative pronouns will be treated of hereafter.

I (plural, *we*) is of the *first* person; *thou* (plural, *ye* or *you*) is of the *second* person; *he*, *she*, and *it*, (plural, *they*,) are of the *third* person, masculine, feminine, and neuter, respectively.

When *self* (plural, *selves*) is added to the personal pronouns, they are called *compound personal pronouns*; as, *myself*, *thyself*, *himself*.

These seldom, if ever, are used as the subject; they may be in apposition with the subject.

It is often used in a vague sense, as the subject of verbs descriptive of the

NOUNS.	PRONOUNS.
Providence is a pleasant route ;" " *That you have wronged me*, doth appear in this."	weather; as, "It rains;" "It thunders." It is used as an *expletive*, (196, *a.*) or when we wish to identify a person, (60, *b.*) or when we wish to introduce a noun with emphasis. (196, *a.*)

NOTE. The noun is often called a *substantive*. All phrases or clauses used as nouns are called *substantive* phrases or clauses.

LESSON III.

NUMBER OF THE NOUN OR PRONOUN.

NOTE. This lesson is referred to on page 22, and should be studied in connection with the "*Number of the Subject.*"

Number is that property of a noun or pronoun which distinguishes one object from more than one.

The noun or pronoun has two numbers, — the *singular* and *plural*.

The singular number denotes but one object; as, *horse*, *river*, *nation*.

The plural denotes more than one object; as, *horses*, *rivers*, *nations*.

The plural of nouns is regularly formed, —

(1.) By adding *s* when the singular ends with a sound that can unite with *s*; as, *book*, *books*; *tree*, *trees*; —

(2.) By adding *es* when the singular ends with a sound that cannot unite with *s*; as, *box*, *boxes*; *church*, *churches*.

Many nouns form their plurals more or less irregularly.

Many nouns ending with *y* preceded by a consonant, or with *f* or *fe*, follow the general rule for the addition, but undergo a

change in their termination; as, *duty*, *duties*; *fly*, *flies*, *knife*, *knives*.

When *y* is preceded by a vowel, the plural is formed regularly; as, *day*, *days*; *play*, *plays*.

The following nouns form the plural irregularly: — *child*, *children*; *man*, *men*; *woman*, *women*; *brother*, *brothers* or *brethren*; *louse*, *lice*; *mouse*, *mice*; *die*, *dice*, (*dies*, when it means a stamp;) *tooth*, *teeth*; *foot*, *feet*; *goose*, *geese*; *penny*, *pence* or *pennies*.

Proper nouns, most abstract nouns, and nouns denoting substance, have no plural, as, *Boston*, *Philadelphia*, *iron*, *gold*, *ice*, *patience*, *idleness*.

Proper nouns, however, may take the plural form when two or more persons are classed together; as, "the Cæsars," "the Scipios."

When a title is prefixed to a proper name so as to form one complex noun, the *name* is generally varied to form the plural; as, "the Miss Browns."

Some nouns are used only in the plural; as, *riches*, *scissors*, *shears*, *lungs*.

Some are alike in both numbers; as, *deer*, *sheep*, *swine*.

Many nouns from foreign languages retain their original plurals; as, *datum*, *data*; *stratum*, *strata*; *axis*, *axes*, *seraph*, *seraphim*; *beau*, *beaux*.

The plural of the pronouns is formed irregularly; as, *I*, *we*; *thou*, *ye*.

LESSON IV.

GENDER OF THE NOUN OR PRONOUN.

NOTE. This lesson is referred to on page 23.

Gender is a distinction of nouns or pronouns in regard to sex.

There are three genders — the *masculine*, *feminine*, and *neuter*.

Nouns or pronouns which denote males are of the *masculine* gender; as, *man*, *heroes*, *they*.

Nouns or pronouns which denote females are of the *feminine* gender; as, *girl*, *she*; *women*, *they*.

Nouns or pronouns which denote objects without life, are of the *neuter* gender; as, *tree*, *it*; *flowers*, *they*.

Nouns which are equally applicable to a male or female, are sometimes said to be of the *common gender*; as, *parent*, *teacher* But such nouns must be either masculine or feminine, and the true gender may generally be determined by the connection.

By a figure of speech, (personification,) inanimate objects are spoken of as male or female. Thus, in speaking of a ship, we say, "*She* sails."

There are three methods of distinguishing the sexes; —

(1.) By using different words; as, *man*, *woman*; *ram*, *ewe*; *king*, *queen*; —

(2.) By a difference of termination; as, *abbot*, *abbess*; *actor*, *actress*; *poet*, *poetess*; —

(3.) By prefixes and suffixes; as, *man*-servant, *maid* servant; *he*-goat, *she*-goat; land-*lord*, land-*lady*.

Personal pronouns of the first and second person have no form to indicate gender.

Those of the third person have a distinct form for each gender; as, *he*, masculine; *she*, feminine; *it*, neuter.

LESSON V.

PERSON OF THE NOUN OR PRONOUN.

Note. This lesson is to be studied in connection with the person of the subject.

Person is that property of a noun or pronoun which shows its relation to the speaker.

A noun or pronoun must represent either the *speaker*, the person *spoken to*, or the person or thing *spoken of*.

There are three persons, — the *first*, *second*, and *third*.

The *first* person denotes the speaker; as, "*I*, *John*, saw."

The *second* person denotes the person spoken to; as, "*Children*, obey your parents."

The *third* person denotes the person or thing spoken of; as, "*Thomas* did not come;" "The *harvest* is abundant."

Nouns in the first and second persons are never used as the subject or object of a verb, but may be in apposition with either.

It is the appropriate office of the personal pronouns to denote person.

LESSON VI.

THE CASE OF THE NOUN OR PRONOUN.

NOTE. This lesson should be studied in connection with the case of the subject. See "*Case of the Subject*," page 25.

Case denotes the relation of a noun or pronoun to other words.

There are three cases, — the *nominative*, *possessive*, and *objective*.

The *nominative* case is the simplest form of the noun or pronoun, and is commonly used as the subject of a proposition; as, "*George* speaks;" "The *door* was shut."

Besides being the subject of a proposition, the nominative case may be used, 1st, as the attribute of a proposition, (60;) 2d, it may be used to identify the subject, (104;) 3d, it may be independent of any other word, (139;) 4th, it may be used with a participle in an abridged proposition, (351.)

The *possessive* case denotes the relation of property or possession; as, "*David's* harp."

The possessive case of nouns is formed by adding an apostrophe (') and the letter *s* to the nominative; as, *man's*, *men's*.

When the plural ends in *s*, the apostrophe only is added; as, *boys'*.

The possessive case of the personal pronouns is formed irregularly; as, I, *my* or *mine*; THOU, *thy* or *thine*; HE, *his*; SHE, *her* or *hers*.

The possessives *mine*, *thine*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, and *theirs*, are used when the object possessed is understood. Hence they have the construction of the noun; as, "*Mine* is a pleasant task" = "My task is pleasant;" "I gave him *yours*"

When a noun or pronoun follows a transitive verb or a preposition, it is in the *objective* case; as, "Thomas opened his *knife*;" "The bird sat on the *tree*."

The objective case of the noun is the same in form as the nominative; but the objective case of a personal pronoun, except *it*, is unlike the nominative; as, *I*, *me*; *thou*, *thee*; *he*, *him*; *she*, *her*

DECLENSION OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

The declension of a noun or pronoun is its variation to denote number and case.

EXAMPLES.

Declension of Nouns.

1. BOY.

	Sing.	*Plur.*
Nom.	Boy,	Boys,
Poss.	Boy's,	Boys',
Obj.	Boys.	Boys.

Declension of Pronouns.

FIRST PERSON.

	Sing.	*Plur.*
Nom.	I,	We,
Poss.	My, mine,	Our, ours
Obj.	Me.	Us

2. Fly.

	Sing.	*Plur.*
Nom.	Fly,	Flies,
Poss	Fly's,	Flies',
Obj	Fly.	Flies.

3. Fox.

	Sing	*Plur.*
Nom	Fox,	Foxes
Poss.	Fox's,	Foxes',
Obj.	Fox.	Foxes.

4. John.

	Sing.	*Plur.*
Nom.	John,	*Wanting.*
Poss.	John's,	———
Obj.	John.	———

5. Goodness.

	Sing.	*Plur.*
Nom.	Goodness,	*Wanting.*
Poss.	Goodness',	———
Obj.	Goodness.	———

Second Person

	Sing.	*Plur.*
Nom.	Thou,	Ye, you,
Poss.	Thy, thine,	Your, yours,
Obj.	Thee.	You.

Third Person. *Masculine.*

	Sing.	*Plur.*
Nom.	He,	They,
Poss.	His,	Their, theirs,
Obj.	Him.	Them.

Third Person. *Feminine.*

	Sing	*Plur.*
Nom.	She,	They,
Poss.	Her, hers,	Their, theirs,
Obj.	Her.	Them.

Third Person. *Neuter*

	Sing.	*Plur.*
Nom.	It,	They,
Poss.	Its,	Their, theirs,
Obj.	It.	Them.

LESSON VII.

ADJECTIVE WORDS.

Note. This lesson is referred to on pages 31 and 50.

That part which relates to page 31 will be found under the head of "*Qualifying Adjectives.*" All words which have the construction of the adjective, are here considered under the head of "*Adjective Words,*" whatever may be their particular classification.

An *adjective* is a word used to limit or qualify the meaning of a noun.

All *adjective words* are divided into two classes — *limiting* and *qualifying*.

I.—*LIMITING ADJECTIVES*

A *limiting* adjective is used to *define* or *restrict* the meaning of a noun, without expressing any of its qualities, as, "*the* house;" "*five* books;" "*Arabian* horses."

Articles.

The particular limiting adjectives *the*, and *a* or *an*, are called *articles*.

The is called the definite article, because it points out some particular thing; as, "*the* desk," "*the* sun."

A or *an* is called an indefinite article, because it does not point out any particular thing; as, "*a* pen;" "*an* orchard."

An is used before a vowel sound, and *a* before a consonant sound; as, "*an* apple;" "*a* pin."

Pronominal Adjectives.

Those limiting adjectives which may, without the use of the article, represent a noun when understood, are called *pronominal adjectives;* as, "*That* [book] is his; *this* is yours."

Qualifying adjectives may represent a noun when understood, but the article must be prefixed; as, "*The good* are happy."

The principal pronominal adjectives are, — *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, *former*, *latter*, *which*, *what*, *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither* *some*, *one*, *none*, *any*, *all*, *such*, *many*, *much*.

When such adjectives represent a noun understood, they are generally called *pronouns*. They may more properly be called *pronominal adjectives* used as nouns; as, "*This* is my book." The articles never represent a noun understood.

Numeral Adjectives

Numeral adjectives are used to express number; as, *one*, *two*, *three*, &c.

Numerals are divided into two classes, —
Cardinal; as, *one*, *two*, *three*, *four*, &c.; —
Ordinal; as, *first*, *second*, *third*, *fourth*, &c.

Circumstantial Adjectives.

Circumstantial adjectives are such as denote some circumstance, generally of *time* or *place;* as, "a *morning* walk;" "an *eastern* custom;" "a *Turkish* vessel."

II.—*QUALIFYING ADJECTIVES.*

A *qualifying* adjective is one which limits the meaning of a noun, by denoting some *property* or *quality;* as, "a *virtuous* man;" "a *running* horse."

To this class of adjectives belong the participles, which have the *signification* of the verb and the *construction* of the adjective. (77, *a.*)

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

When different objects are compared with each other, the adjective expressing the property by means of which they are compared, undergoes a change called *comparison.*

There are three degrees of comparison, — the *positive*, *comparative*, and *superlative.*

The *positive* simply denotes a quality; as, *righteous*, *pleasant.*

The *comparative* shows that one of two objects pos

sesses a quality in a higher degree than the other; as, "This tree is *taller* than that."

The *superlative* shows that one of several objects possesses a quality in the highest degree, when compared with all the rest; as, "That pine is the *tallest* tree in the grove."

The comparative of monosyllables is regularly formed by adding *r* or *er*, and the superlative by adding *st* or *est*, to the positive; as, *wise*, *wiser*, *wisest*; *bold*, *bolder*, *boldest*.

The comparative of most adjectives of more than one syllable, is formed by prefixing *more* or *less*, and the superlative, by prefixing *most* or *least*, to the positive; as, *industrious*, *more industrious*, *most industrious*.

The following adjectives are compared irregularly: — *good*, *better*, *best*; *bad*, *worse*, *worst*; *ill*, *worse*, *worst*; *little*, *less* or *lesser*, *least*; *much*, *more*, *most*; *many*, *more*, *most*; *far*, *farther*, *farthest*; *near*, *nearer*, *nearest* or *next*; *late*, *later*, *latest* or *last*; *old*, *older* or *elder*, *oldest* or *eldest*.

LESSON VIII.

CLASSES OF VERBS.

See page 34.

A *verb* is a word which expresses *being*, *action*, or *state*; as, *be*, *read*, *sleep*, *is loved*.

The being, action, or state, may be *affirmed*, *assumed*, or *used abstractly*; as, "George *runs*;" "George *running*;" "*to run*."

Verbs are divided, according to their *use*, into *transitive* and *intransitive*.

A *transitive* verb requires the addition of an object to complete its meaning; as, "James struck *John*."

An *intransitive* verb does not require the addition of an object to complete its meaning; as, "The horse *runs*."

Verbs are divided, according to their *form*, into *regular* and *irregular*.

A *regular* verb is one in which the past tense and past participle are formed by adding *d* or *ed* to the present; as, *love*, *loved*, *loved*; *gain*, *gained*, *gained*.

An *irregular* verb is one in which the past tense and past participle are formed in some other way; as, *see*, *saw*, *seen*; *write*, *wrote*, *written*.

The present, past, and past participle of a verb are called its *principal parts*.

The following list contains the principal parts of the irregular verbs:—

Present.	*Past.*	*Past Participle*
Abide,	Abode,	Abode.
Am,	Was,	Been.
Awake,	Awoke, R *	Awaked
Bear, (*to bring forth*,)	Bore,	Born.
Bear, (*to carry*,)	Bore,	Borne.
Beat,	Beat,	Beaten, beat
Begin,	Began,	Begun.
Bend,	Bent, R	Bent.
Bereave,	Bereft, R.	Bereft, R.
Beseech,	Besought,	Besought.
Bid,	Bid, bade,	Bidden, bid.
Bind,	Bound,	Bound.
Bite,	Bit,	Bitten, bit.
Bleed,	Bled,	Bled.
Blow,	Blew,	Blown.
Break,	Broke,	Broken.
Breed,	Bred,	Bred.
Bring,	Brought,	Brought.
Build,	Built, R.	Built.
Burn,	Burnt, R.	Burnt, R.

* Those verbs whose past tense or past participle is followed by R., have also a regular form; as, *awoke* or *awaked*

Present.	*Past.*	*Past Participle.*
Burst,	Burst,	Burst.
Buy,	Bought,	Bought.
Cast,	Cast,	Cast.
Catch,	Caught, R.	Caught R.
Chide,	Chid,	Chidden, chid
Choose,	Chose,	Chosen.
Cleave, (*to adhere,*)	Cleaved,	Cleaved.
Cleave, (*to split,*)	Clove, cleft,	Cloven.
Cling,	Clung,	Clung.
Clothe,	Clad, R.	Clad, R.
Come,	Came,	Come.
Cost,	Cost,	Cost.
Creep,	Crept,	Crept.
Crow,	Crew, R.	Crowed.
Cut,	Cut,	Cut.
Dare,	Durst,	Dared.
Deal,	Dealt, R.	Dealt, R.
Dig,	Dug, R.	Dug, R.
Do,	Did,	Done.
Draw,	Drew,	Drawn.
Dream,	Dreamt, R.	Dreamt, R.
Drink,	Drank,	Drunk, drank
Drive,	Drove,	Driven.
Dwell,	Dwelt, R.	Dwelt, R.
Eat,	Ate, eat,	Eaten.
Fall,	Fell,	Fallen.
Feed,	Fed,	Fed.
Feel,	Felt,	Felt.
Fight,	Fought,	Fought.
Find,	Found,	Found.
Flee,	Fled,	Fled.
Fling,	Flung,	Flung.
Fly,	Flew,	Flown.
Forsake,	Forsook,	Forsaken.
Freeze,	Froze,	Frozen.
Freight,	Freighted,	Fraught, R.
Get,	Got,	Got, gotten
Gild,	Gilt, R.	Gilt, R.
Gird,	Girt, R.	Girt, R.
Give,	Gave,	Given.

Present.	*Past.*	*Past Participle*
Go,	Went,	Gone.
Grave,	Graved,	Graven, R.
Grind,	Ground,	Ground.
Grow,	Grew,	Grown.
Hang,	Hung,	Hung.
Have,	Had,	Had.
Hear,	Heard,	Heard.
Heave,	Hove, R.	Hoven, R.
Hew,	Hewed,	Hewn, R.
Hide,	Hid,	Hidden, hid
Hit,	Hit,	Hit.
Hold,	Held,	Held.
Hurt.	Hurt,	Hurt.
Keep,	Kept,	Kept.
Kneel,	Knelt, R	Knelt, R.
Knit,	Knit, R.	Knit, R.
Know,	Knew,	Known
Lade,	Laded,	Laden
Lay,	Laid,	Laid
Lead,	Led,	Led.
Leave,	Left,	Left.
Lend,	Lent,	Lent
Let,	Let,	Let.
Lie, (*to recline,*)	Lay,	Lain.
Light,	Lit, R.	Lit, R.
Load,	Loaded,	Laden, R.
Lose,	Lost,	Lost.
Make,	Made,	Made.
Mean,	Meant,	Meant.
Meet,	Met,	Met.
Mow,	Mowed,	Mown, R.
Pay,	Paid,	Paid.
Pen, (*to enclose,*)	Pent, R.	Pent, R.
Put,	Put,	Put.
Quit,	Quit, R.	Quit, R.
Read.	Read,	Read.
Rend,	Rent,	Rent.
Rid.	Rid,	Rid.
Ride,	Rode,	Ridden.
Ring,	Rang, rung,	Rung

Present	*Past.*	*Past Participle.*
Rise,	Rose,	Risen.
Rive,	Rived,	Riven.
Run,	Ran,	Run.
Saw	Sawed,	Sawn, R.
Say,	Said,	Said.
See,	Saw,	Seen.
Seek,	Sought,	Sought.
Seethe	Sod, R.	Sodden.
Sell,	Sold,	Sold.
Send,	Sent,	Sent.
Set,	Set,	Set.
Sit,	Sat,	Sat.
Shake	Shook,	Shaken.
Shape	Shaped,	Shapen, R.
Shave	Shaved,	Shaven, R
Shear,	Sheared,	Shorn, R.
Shed,	Shed,	Shed.
Shine,	Shone,	Shone.
Shoe,	Shod,	Shod.
Shoot,	Shot,	Shot.
Show,	Showed,	Shown
Shred,	Shred,	Shred.
Shrink,	Shrunk, shrank	Shrunk.
Shut,	Shut,	Shut.
Sing,	Sang, sung,	Sung.
Sink,	Sunk, sank,	Sunk.
Slay,	Slew,	Slain.
Sleep,	Slept,	Slept.
Slide,	Slid,	Slidden, slid
Sling,	Slung,	Slung.
Slink,	Slunk,	Slunk.
Slit,	Slit,	Slit, R.
Smite,	Smote,	Smitten, smit
Sow, (*to scatter,*)	Sowed,	Sown, R.
Speak,	Spoke,	Spoken.
Speed,	Sped,	Sped.
Spell,	Spelt, R	Spelt, R.
Spend,	Spent,	Spent.
Spill,	Spilt, R	Spilt, R
Spin,	Spun,	Spun

Present.	*Past.*	*Past Participle*
Spit,	Spit,	Spit.
Split,	Split,	Split.
Spread,	Spread,	Spread.
Spring,	Sprang, sprung,	Sprung.
Stand,	Stood,	Stood.
Steal,	Stole,	Stolen.
Stick,	Stuck,	Stuck.
Sting,	Stung,	Stung.
Stride,	Strode, strid,	Stridden.
Strike,	Struck,	Struck, stricken.
String,	Strung,	Strung.
Strive,	Strove,	Striven.
Strow *or* strew,	Strowed *or* strewed,	Strown, strewn, R
Swear,	Swore,	Sworn.
Sweat,	Sweat, R.	Sweat, R
Sweep,	Swept,	Swept.
Swell,	Swelled,	Swollen, R.
Swim,	Swam, swum,	Swum.
Swing,	Swung,	Swung.
Take,	Took,	Taken.
Teach,	Taught,	Taught.
Tear,	Tore,	Torn.
Tell,	Told,	Told.
Think,	Thought,	Thought.
Thrive,	Throve,	Thriven.
Throw,	Threw,	Thrown.
Thrust,	Thrust,	Thrust.
Tread,	Trod,	Trodden, trod
Wax,	Waxed,	Waxen, R.
Wear,	Wore,	Worn.
Weave,	Wove,	Woven.
Weep,	Wept,	Wept.
Wet,	Wet, R.	Wet, R.
Whet,	Whet, R	Whet, R.
Win,	Won,	Won.
Wind,	Wound,	Wound.
Work,	Wrought, R	Wrought, R
Wring,	Wrung,	Wrung.
Write,	Wrote,	Written

An *auxiliary* verb is one which is employed in conjugating other verbs. The auxiliaries are, *do*, *be*, *have*, *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, *must*.

Defective verbs are those in which some of the parts are wanting. They are, *beware*, *quoth*, *ought*, and all the auxiliaries except *do*, *be*, and *have*. These, when used as principal verbs, have all their parts.

LESSON IX.

NUMBER, PERSON, AND VOICE OF THE VERB

The number and person of the verb are properties which show its agreement with the subject. Like the subject, the verb has two numbers and three persons.

In the solemn style, the second person singular of the verb, in the present tense, is formed by adding *st* or *est* to the first; but in the common style, it ends like the second person plural; the third person singular is formed by adding *s* or *es*.

Voice is applied to the two forms of the transitive verb, and is either *active* or *passive*.

The *active* voice represents the subject as acting; as, "John *struck* William."

The *passive* voice represents the subject as being acted upon; as, "William *was struck* by John."

The passive verb is formed by adding the passive participle of a transitive verb to the copula.

Any sentence containing a transitive verb may take two equivalent forms, — one in which the verb is in the active voice, and the other in which it is in the passive. When the verb is in the passive voice, the agent is in the objective case following *by*, as, "William was struck *by John*." Sometimes the agent is omitted; as, "A plot was discovered."

LESSON X.

MODE OF THE VERB.

NOTE. This lesson is referred to on page 38.

Mode shows the *manner* in which an attribute is asserted of the subject.

There are commonly reckoned five modes, — the *indicative*, *potential*, *subjunctive*, *imperative*, and *infinitive*.

The *indicative* mode asserts a thing as *actually existing;* as, "James is rich;" "George writes."

The *potential* mode asserts a thing as *possible*, *probable*, or *necessary;* as, "James *may be rich;*" "George *must write.*"

The *subjunctive* mode asserts a thing as *conditional* or *doubtful;* as, "If James be rich;" "Should George write."

The *imperative* mode asserts a *command*, an *exhortation*, an *entreaty*, or a *permission;* as, "Write;" "Go thou;" "Be satisfied."

The *infinitive* * represents an attribute as an abstract noun; as, "*to be rich;*" "to write."

The indicative, potential and imperative modes are used in principal propositions. The subjunctive is always used in subordinate propositions, and the infinitive and participles, in abridged propositions.

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* The infinitive is here placed among the modes, because it has been thus ranked by common consent; yet it is as really a participle as the forms which bear that name. It does not *assert* action at all, and therefore cannot properly be said to have mode. It is the simple name of the verb, taken abstractly, and partakes of the properties of the noun and verb, just as the participle partakes of the properties of the adjective and verb. Both are used in abridged propositions, (347, 353,) one in reducing substantive and the other in reducing adjective clauses.

NOTE. The indicative and potential modes are often used in subordinate propositions. The imperative mode is sometimes made subordinate in direct quotation; as, "God said, Let there be light."

PARTICIPLES.

A participle is a form of the verb by which the being action, or state, is used as an adjective.

The participle is so called, because it *participates* of the properties of the verb and adjective. (See 65, *a*.)

There are two participles, — the *present* and *perfect*; as, *reading*, *having read*.

These two participles correspond to the present and perfect tenses in each of the three grand divisions of time. (81, *a*.)

Transitive verbs have an *active* and *passive* participle.

EXAMPLES.

	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.
Present.	Loving,	Loved *or* being loved.
Perfect.	Having loved,	Having been loved.

Though there are but two distinct participles, there are three different forms called participles, (see 89,) — the *present*, the *past*, and the *perfect*.

The past participle is never used except in combination with some modification of *have*, to form the perfect tenses; as, *have loved*, *had loved*, *to have loved*, *having loved*. It belongs to all verbs, transitive and intransitive. It has an active signification, denotes past time, but is never used, like the other forms, to limit a noun by expressing an assumed attribute. Its entire use is, to aid in the formation of the tenses. The past participle is, however, identical in form with the present passive participle, when used without *being*. Mark the difference in the following examples: — "The boy has *respected* the wishes of his parents;" "The boy lives (being) *respected* by all." In the last example, "respected" has a passive signification, denotes present

time, and limits "boy" by assuming (not affirming) that he is in a certain state. This last is called the *passive* participle of "respect;" *respecting* being the corresponding *active* participle Intransitive verbs have no passive participle.

The present active participle denotes an action or state present but unfinished at the time denoted by the principal verb; as, "We *found* him *sitting* in a chair."

The present passive participle denotes the reception of an act, which is present at the time denoted by the principal verb; as, "He *lives loved* by all."

The perfect active participle denotes an action or state past and completed at the time denoted by the principal verb; as, "*Having finished* his speech, he *sat* down."

The perfect passive participle denotes the reception of an act past and completed at the time denoted by the principal verb; as, "*Having been driven* from home, he *enlisted* in the army."

Participles, like the subordinate clauses for which they stand (see note, page 175,) denote a time *present* or *past* in relation to the principal verb, and not in relation to the speaker. Hence the present participle may denote, with reference to the speaker, *present*, *past*, or *future* time. So the perfect participle may denote an act completed in *past*, *present*, or *future* time. It is worthy of notice, that each grand division of time has two tenses, — a *present* and a *perfect* (81, *a.*); and that this distinction exists in all the verbal forms, the infinitive and participles as well as the modes properly so called.

A participle, like an adjective, may be either assumed or predicated of a noun; as, "A boat *sailing* on the water is a pleasant object:" "The boat *is sailing* on the water."

An assumed participle, with the words depending upon it, is equivalent to a subordinate clause.

The active participle, when predicated, constitutes, with the copula, the *progressive form* of the verb; as "The farmer *was reaping*."

The passive participle, when predicated, forms, with the copula, the *passive* verb; as, "His expectations *were realized.*"

NOTE. For participial nouns, see page 86.

LESSON XI.

TENSE OF THE VERB.

Tense denotes the *time* of an action or event.

There are three divisions of time, — the *past*, the *present*, and the *future*.

Each division has two tenses, — an *absolute* and a *relative*. There are, therefore, six tenses, — three absolute and three relative.

The absolute tenses take the name of the division to which they belong, namely, the *present tense*, the *past tense*, and the *future tense*.

The relative tenses add to the name of the division the word "perfect;" — *present perfect*, *past perfect*, *future perfect*.

The present tense denotes present time; as, "I *write*."

The present perfect tense denotes past time completed in the present; as, "I *have written*."

The past tense denotes past time; as, "I *wrote*."

The past perfect tense denotes past time completed in the past; as, "I *had written*."

The future tense denotes future time; as, "I *shall write*."

The future perfect tense denotes a future time completed in the future; as, "I *shall have written*."

FORMS OF THE VERB.

There are three different forms of the verb, in the active voice, namely, the *common*, the *emphatic*, the *progressive;* to these may be added the *passive.*

COMMON FORM.

The tenses of the common form are thus formed:—

INDICATIVE MODE.

Absolute Tenses.

The *present* is the first or simple form of the verb, as, *love.*

The *past* is the second form of the verb; as, *loved*

The *future* is formed by joining to the simple verb the auxiliary *shall* or *will;* as, *shall love, will love.*

Relative Tenses.

The *present perfect* is formed by joining the present tense of *have* to the past participle of the verb; as, *have loved.*

The *past perfect* is formed by joining the past tense of *have* to the past participle; as, *had loved.*

The *future perfect* is formed by joining the future tense of *have* to the past participle; as, *shall have loved.*

POTENTIAL MODE.

Absolute Tenses.

The *present potential* is formed by joining the present tense of *may, can,* or *must,* to the simple or first form of the verb; as, *may, can,* or *must love.*

The *past potential* is formed by joining the past tenses of *may, can, will,* or *shall,* to the simple form of the verb; as, *might, could, would,* or *should love.*

Relative Tenses.

The *present perfect* is formed by joining the present potential of *have* to the past participle; as, *may, can,* or *must have loved.*

The *past perfect* is formed by joining the past potential of *have* to the past participle; as, *might, could, would* or *should have loved.*

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

The subjunctive mode is the same in form as the indicative or potential, with *if*, *unless*, *though* &c., prefixed; as, *if I love*, *if I can love.*

IMPERATIVE MODE.

The imperative has but one tense, — the *present*, — which is the simple form of the verb, generally used without the subject expressed; as, *love.*

INFINITIVE MODE.

The infinitive mode has two tenses, — a *present* and a *perfect.* The *present* is the first form of the verb joined to *to*; as, *to love.*

The *perfect* is formed by joining the present infinitive of *have* to the past participle of the verb; as, *to have loved.*

PARTICIPLES.

The *present* participle is formed by adding *ing* to the first form of the verb;* as, *loving.*

The *past* participle is formed, for regular verbs, by adding *ed* to the simple verb;* as, *loved.*

The *perfect* participle is formed by joining the present participle of *have* to the past participle; as, *having loved.*

EMPHATIC FORM.

The emphatic form belongs to the active voice of the indicative and imperative modes. It is formed by joining the auxiliary *do* to the first form of the verb, for the pres-

* When the simple verb ends in *e*, the *e* should be dropped before the addition is made; as, *love*, lov-*ing* or *ed*.

ent tense, and *did* to the same, for the past tense; as, *do love, do thou love, did love.*

PROGRESSIVE FORM.

The *progressive* form is the common form of the copula *to be* added to the present participle; as, *am loving, have been loving*, &c.

PASSIVE FORM.

The *passive* form is the common form of the copula *to be* joined to the *passive* participle, (same in form as the past participle;) as, *is loved, has been loved*, &c.

CONJUGATION.

The *conjugation* of a verb is the regular arrangement of its several *modes, tenses, voices, numbers*, and *persons.*

The following is the conjugation of the verb TO BE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Absolute Tenses.

Present Tense.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1.	I am.	We are.
2.	Thou art.*	You are.†
3.	He is.	They are.

Past Tense.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1.	I was.	We were.
2.	Thou wast.	You were.
3.	He was.	They were.

---

* *Thou* is used in the *solemn* or *poetical* style, but *you* is used in the singular in the common style; as, *I am, you are, he is*

† *Ye* is also used in the plural; thus, *Ye* or *you are*

Future Tense

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1.	I shall *or* will be.	We shall *or* will be
2.	Thou shalt *or* wilt be.	You shall *or* will be.
3	He shall *or* will be.	They shall *or* will be.

Relative Tenses.

Present Perfect.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1.	I have been.	We have been
2.	Thou hast been.	You have been.
3.	He has been.	They have been.

Past Perfect.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1.	I had been.	We had been.
2.	Thou hadst been	You had been.
3.	He had been.	They had been.

Future Perfect.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1.	I shall have been.	We shall have been.
2.	Thou wilt have been.	You will have been.
3.	He will have been.	They will have been.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Absolute Tenses.

Present Tense.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1.	I may be.	We may be.
2.	Thou mayst be.	You may be.
3.	He may be.	They may be.

Past Tense.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1	I might be.	We might be.
2.	Thou mightst be.	You might be.
3.	He might be.	They might be

Relative Tenses.

Present Perfect.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1.	I may have been	We may have been.
2.	Thou mayst have been.	You may have been.
3.	He may have been.	They may have been.

Past Perfect.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1.	I might have been.	We might have been.
2.	Thou mightst have been.	You might have been.
3	He might have been.	They might have been

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Absolute Tenses.

Present Tense.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1	If I am.	If we are.
2	If thou art.	If you are
3	If he is.	If they are

Past Tense.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1	If I was.	If we were.
2.	If thou wast.	If you were
3.	If he was.	If they were

Future Tense.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1.	If I shall *or* will be.	If we shall *or* will be.
2.	If thou shalt *or* wilt be.	If you shall *or* will be.
3.	If he shall *or* will be.	If they shall *or* will be.

Relative Tenses.

Present Perfect.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1.	If I have been.	If we have been.
2	If thou hast been.	If you have been.
3.	If he has been	If they have been

Past Perfect.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I had been.	If we had been.
2. If thou hadst been.	If you had been.
3. If he had been.	If they had been.

Future Perfect.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I shall have been.	If we shall have been.
2 If thou shalt have been.	If you shall have been.
3. If he shall have been.	If they shall have been.

Besides the forms already given, the subjunctive has another for the present and past.

Present Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
If I be.	If we be.
2. If thou be.	If you be.
3. If he be.	If they be.

Past Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
If I were.	If we were.
2. If thou wert.	If you were.
3. If he were.	If they were

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Be, *or* Be thou.	Be ye *or* you.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present Tense,	To be.
Present Perfect,	To have been

PARTICIPLES.

Present,	Being.
Past,	Been.
Perfect,	Having been.

Synopsis is a short view of a verb, showing its forms through the modes and tenses in a single number and person

The following is a synopsis, 1st pers. sing. of HAVE: —

INDICATIVE MODE.

Absolute Tenses.

I have I had. I shall have.

Relative Tenses.

I have had, I had had, I shall have had.

Let the learner write out the second and third persons in the same manner, and complete the synopsis in all the modes.

The regular verb LOVE is thus conjugated. —

INDICATIVE MODE.

NOTE. The four forms * — the *common*, *emphatic*, *progressive*, and *passive* — are arranged together. The pronouns are placed at the head of the column, and should be taken in connection with the forms below them. When read downwards, the several forms in each person will be given; when read across the page, the several persons in each form will be given.

Present Tense.

	1...*Singular.*	2....*Singular.*	3....*Singular*
	I	THOU	HE, SHE, IT
Com.	love,	lovest,	loves,
Emp.	do love,	dost love,	does love,
Prog.	am loving,	art loving,	is loving,
Pas.	am loved,	art loved,	is loved.

* The three forms of the active voice only are given in the body of the work, page 42. It is thought best here to bring all the forms together, that the learner may see them at one view.

	1...*Plural.*	2....*Plural.*	3....*Plural*
	We	Ye or You	They
Com.	love,	love,	love,
Emp.	do love,	do love,	do love,
Prog.	are loving,	are loving,	are loving,
Pas	are loved,	are loved,	are loved.

Past Tense.

	1....*Singular.*	2....*Singular.*	3....*Singular*
	I	Thou	He, She, It
Com.	loved,	lovedst,	loved,
Emp.	did love,	didst love,	did love,
Prog.	was loving,	wast loving,	was loving
Pas.	was loved,	wast loved,	was loved.

	1....*Plural.*	2....*Plural.*	3....*Plural.*
	We	Ye or You	They
Com.	loved,	loved,	loved,
Emp.	did love,	did love,	did love,
Prog.	were loving,	were loving,	were loving,
Pas.	were loved,	were loved,	were loved

Future Tense.

	1... *Singular.*	2....*Singular.*	3....*Singular.*
	I	Thou	He, She, It
Com	shall * love,	shalt love,	shall love,
Prog.	shall be loving,	shalt be loving,	shall be loving,
Pas.	shall be loved,	shalt be loved,	shall be loved

	1....*Plural.*	2....*Plural.*	3....*Plural.*
	We	Ye or You	They
Com.	shall love,	shall love,	shall love,
Prog.	shall be loving,	shall be loving,	shall be loving,
Pas.	shall be loved,	shall be loved,	shall be loved.

Present Perfect.

	1....*Singular.*	2....*Singular.*	3....*Singular*
	I	Thou	He, She, It
Com.	have loved,	hast loved,	has loved,
Prog.	have been loving,	hast been loving,	has been loving,
Pas.	have been loved,	hast been loved,	has been loved.

* The pupil should be accustomed to use either auxiliary, *shall* or *will*. *Shall* denotes a determination; *will* predicts.

	1 ...*Plural.*	2....*Plural.*	3. *Plural.*
	We	Ye or You	They
Com.	have loved,	have loved,	have loved,
Prog	have been loving,	have been loving,	have been loving
Pas.	have been loved,	have been loved,	have been loved.

Past Perfect.

	1....*Singular.*	2....*Singular.*	3....*Singular.*
	I	Thou	He, She, It
Com.	had loved,	hadst loved,	had loved,
Prog.	had been loving,	hadst been loving,	had been loving,
Pas	had been loved,	hadst been loved,	had been loved.

	1....*Plural.*	2....*Plural.*	3....*Plural.*
	We	Ye or You	They
Com.	had loved,	had loved,	had loved,
Prog.	had been loving,	had been loving,	had been loving,
Pas.	had been loved,	had been loved,	had been loved

Future Perfect.

	1....*Singular.*	2....*Singular*
	I	Thou
Com.	shall have loved,	shalt have loved,
Prog.	shall have been loving,	shalt have been loving,
Pas.	shall have been loved,	shalt have been loved,

3... *Singular.*

He, She, It

Com. shall have loved,
Prog. shall have been loving,
Pas. shall have been loved.

	1....*Plural.*	2....*Plural.*
	We	Ye or You
Com.	shall have loved,	shall have loved,
Prog.	shall have been loving,	shall have been loving,
Pas.	shall have been loved,	shall have been loved,

3....*Plural.*

They

Com. shall have loved,
Prog. shall have been loving,
Pas. shall have been loved

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present Tense.

	1. *Singular.*	2....*Singular.*	3....*Singular*
	I	Thou	He, She, It,
Com	may * love,	mayst love,	may love,
Prog	may be loving,	mayst be loving,	may be loving
Pas.	may be loved,	mayst be loved,	may be loved.

	1....*Plural.*	2....*Plural.*	3....*Plural.*
	We	Ye or You	They
Com.	may love,	may love,	may love,
Prog.	may be loving,	may be loving,	may be loving,
Pas.	may be loved,	may be loved,	may be loved.

Past Tense.

	1....*Singular.*	2....*Singular.*	3....*Singular.*
	I	Thou	He, She, It,
Com.	might love,	mightst love,	might love,
Prog.	might be loving,	mightst be loving,	might be loving
Pas.	might be loved,	mightst be loved,	might be loved.

	1....*Plural.*	2....*Plural.*	3....*Plural.*
	We	Ye or You	They
Com.	might love,	might love,	might love,
Prog.	might be loving,	might be loving,	might be loving,
Pas.	might be loved,	might be loved,	might be loved

Present Perfect Tense.

	1....*Singular.*	2....*Singular.*
	I	Thou
Com.	may have loved,	mayst have loved.
Prog.	may have been loving,	mayst have been loving,
Pas.	may have been loved,	mayst have been loved,

* Let the pupil use also the auxiliaries *can* and *must*, in the present and present perfect tenses; and *could*, *would*, and *should*, in the past and past perfect tenses.

3....*Singular.*

He, She, It

Com. may have loved,
Prog. may have been loving,
Pas. may have been loved.

	1....*Plural.*	2....*Plural.*
	We	Ye or You
Com.	may have loved,	may have loved,
Prog	may have been loving,	may have been loving
Pas.	may have been loved,	may have been loved,

3.. .*Plural.*

They

Com. may have loved,
Prog. may have been loving,
Pas. may have been loved.

Past Perfect Tense.

	1....*Singular.*	2....*Singular.*
	I	Thou
Com.	might have loved,	mightst have loved,
Prog.	might have been loving,	mightst have been loving
Pas.	might have been loved,	mightst have been loved,

3....*Singular.*

He, She, It

Com. might have loved,
Prog. might have been loving,
Pas. might have been loved.

	1....*Plural.*	2....*Plural.*
	We	Ye or You
Com	might have loved,	might have loved,
Prog	might have been loving,	might have been loving,
Pas.	might have been loved,	might have been loved,

3....*Plural.*

They

Com. might have loved,
Prog. might have been loving,
Pas. might have been loved

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

The subjunctive mode is the same as the indicative or potential, with *if* prefixed.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Common Form,	Love, *or* Love thou,	Love, *or* Love ye *or* you,
Emphatic Form,	Do thou love,	Do ye *or* you love,
Progressive Form,	Be thou loving,	Be ye *or* you loving,
Passive Form,	Be thou loved,	Be ye *or* you loved.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Common Form,	To love,
Progressive Form,	To be loving,
Passive Form,	To be loved.

Perfect Tense.

Common Form,	To have loved,
Progressive Form,	To have been loving,
Passive Form,	To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present,	Loving, (*common form*,) Being loving, (*progressive form*,) Being loved, *or* loved, (*passive form*.)
Past,	Loved, (used only in combination.)
Perfect,	Having loved, (*common form*,) Having been loving, (*progressive form*,) Having been loved, (*passive form*.)

NOTE. Some few intransitive verbs take the passive form · as, "I *am come;*" "The sun *is risen;*" "He *is fallen.*"

LESSON XII.

ADVERBS.

An *adverb* is a word used to modify the meaning of a *verb*, *adjective*, *participle*, or other *adverb*.

Adverbs may be divided into four general classes; — adverbs of *place*, of *time*, of *cause*, of *manner*.

Adverbs of *place* answer the questions, *Where? Whither? Whence?* as, *here*, *there*, *above*, *yonder*, *below*, *somewhere*, *back*, *upwards*, *downwards*, &c.

Adverbs of *time* answer the questions, *When? How long? How often?* as, *then*, *yesterday*, *always*, *ever*, *continually*, *often*, *frequently*, &c.

Adverbs of *cause* answer the questions, *Why? Wherefore?* as, *why*, *wherefore*, *therefore*, *then*.

Note. Causal relations are commonly expressed by *phrases* and *clauses*. (See 132, *a*.)

Adverbs of *manner* answer the question, *How?* as, *elegantly*, *faithfully*, *fairly*, &c. They are generally derived from adjectives denoting quality.

Under this head may be classed those which answer the question, *How?* in respect to *quantity* or *quality;* as, How *much?* How *good?* &c.; as, *too*, *very*, *greatly*, *chiefly*, *perfectly*, *mainly*, *wholly*, *totally*, *quite*, *exceedingly*.

Modal adverbs belong to this class. (See 134, *a*.) The following are the principal modal adverbs: — *yes*, *yea*, *verily*, *truly*, *surely*, *undoubtedly*, *doubtless*, *forsooth*, *certainly; no*, *nay*, *not*; *possibly*, *probably*, *perhaps*, *peradventure*, *perchance*.

All phrases or clauses which denote *place*, *time*, *cause*, or *manner*, are of the nature of adverbs.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

Many adverbs, like adjectives, admit of comparison; as, *soon*, *sooner soonest; bravely more bravely*, *most bravely*.

NOTE. For *interrogative* and *conjunctive* adverbs, see Lessons XIV. and XV.

LESSON XIII.

PREPOSITIONS.

NOTE. For the construction and use of the prepositions, see Chapter II.

A *preposition* is a word used to show the relation between a noun or pronoun and some preceding word; as, *upon*, *on*, *with*.

The following is a list of the principal prepositions in use: —

Aboard,	before,	for,	throughout,
about,	behind,	from,	till,
above,	below,	in, into,	to,
according to,	beneath,	notwithstanding,	touching,
across,	beside *or*	of,	toward *or*
after,	besides,	off,	towards,
against,	between,	on,	under,
along,	betwixt,	out of,	underneath,
amid *or*	beyond,	over,	until,
amidst,	by,	past,	unto,
among *or*	concerning,	regarding,	up,
amongst,	down,	respecting,	upon,
around,	during,	round,	with,
at,	except,	since,	within,
athwart,	excepting,	through,	without

INTERJECTIONS.

An *interjection* is a word used to express some emotion of the mind; as, *oh! alas!*

Interjections are to be found chiefly in sentences expressive of joy, sorrow, or reverence.

LESSON XIV

INTERROGATIVES.

NOTE. This lesson should be studied in connection with Section IX. page 121

Interrogatives are words used in asking questions.

There are three kinds of interrogatives,—*pronouns*, *adjectives*, and *adverbs*.

Interrogative pronouns are used to inquire for some person or thing. They are *who*, *which*, and *what*.

Who is used to inquire for persons; *what*, as a pronoun, inquires for things; *which* refers to one of several persons or things; as, "*Who* wrote? *James*." "*What* do you see? A *tree*." "*Which* shall I take? The *largest one*."

Interrogative adjectives are used to inquire for some description of a person or thing. They are, *which*, *what*, joined to the noun to be described; *how many*, used to inquire for number; as, "*What* book have you? A *blank* book." "*Which* path shall we follow? The *right-hand* path." "*How many* lessons has he learned? *Four* lessons."

Interrogative adverbs inquire for some circumstance of *place*, *time*, *cause*, or *manner*; as, "*Where*, *when*, *why*, *how*, did he go?"

For a list of the several interrogatives, see ¶ 258, (*a*.)

LESSON XV.

CONNECTIVES

Connectives are words used to unite the elements of a sentence; as, "*When* a wise man is derided by a foolish he will not be indignant."

Connectives are divided into two classes, — *coördinate* and *subordinate.*

Coördinate connectives are always *conjunctions.* They are used to unite either coördinate clauses or coördinate parts of a clause; as, "Life is short, *and* art is long;" "Vice *and* misery are inseparable."

Coördinate conjunctions are of three kinds, — *copulative*, *adversative*, and *alternative.* (See ¶ 157, and Sections I II and III Chapter IV.)

A *subordinate connective* is used to join a subordinate clause to some preceding word or clause; as, "I knew *that* he was deceitful."

Subordinate connectives are *conjunctions*, *relative pronouns*, and *conjunctive adverbs.*

Subordinate connectives are used to connect the three kinds of clauses, — *substantive*, *adjective*, and *adverbial.*

Substantive clauses are connected by *that* and the various interrogatives. (See ¶ 258, 1, 2, 3.)

Adverbial clauses are connected by *conjunctive adverbs*

Adjective clauses are connected by *relative pronouns.*

A relative pronoun is used to represent a preceding noun or pronoun, called the *antecedent*, and to connect with it the adjective clause which depends upon and limits it.

For the different relatives, and their different uses, see Section III. page 135.

Relative and interrogative pronouns have the same accidents as the noun or personal pronoun, namely, number person, gender, and case, and are thus declined: —

	Sing. and Plur.	*Sing. and Plur*
Nom.	Who,	Which,
Poss.	whose,	whose,
Obj.	whom	which.

Instead of *whose*, *of which* is most commonly used as the possessive of *which.*

What and *that* are used only in the nominative and objective cases.

SYNTAX.

SYNTAX treats of the construction of sentences.

NOTE. The principles of construction have been given in the body of this work. For convenience of reference, the rules are here brought together, with a few additional notes.

RULES.

THE SUBJECT.

RULE I. A noun or pronoun, used as the *subject* of a proposition, must be in the nominative case. (Page 26. See, also, ¶¶ 33, *a*, *b*, *c*, 191, 281.)

THE PREDICATE.

RULE II. A noun or pronoun, used with the copula to form the *predicate*, must be in the nominative case. (Page 29. See, also, ¶¶ 198, 283.)

RULE III. An adjective used with the copula to form the *predicate*, belongs to the subject. (Page 32. See, also, ¶ 200.)

NOTE 1. Adjectives may thus belong to a substantive *phrase* or *clause;* as, "*To steal* is *base.*"

NOTE 2. Sometimes an adverb, or even a preposition, is joined to the copula, to form the predicate; as, "Thy glorious day is *o'er*." "The boy is cheerful, but his brother is not *so.*"

RULE IV. The *verb* must agree with its subject in number and person. (Page 35.)

NOTE. Some verbs are used only in one person, and are hence called *unipersonal;* as, "It rains;" "Methinks."

THE ADJECTIVE ELEMENT.

RULE V. An adjective or participle, used as a *modifier*, belongs to the noun or pronoun which it limits. (Page 51

Note 1. Adjectives which imply number, should agree in number with the nouns to which they belong; as, "*all* men;" "*several* men." When two numerals precede a noun, one singular and the other plural, the plural should be placed next to the noun; as, "the first *two* lines," not "the two *first* lines."

Note 2. When objects are contrasted, *that* refers to the first, and *this* to the last mentioned, as, "Wealth and poverty are both temptations; *that* tends to excite pride, *this* discontentment."

For the use of comparatives and superlatives, see ¶¶ 61, 62, and 63.

Note 3. In the use of the indefinite article, *a* should be placed before the sound of a consonant, and *an* before that of a vowel; as, "*a* house;" "*a* [y]union;" "*an* inch;" "*an* hour."

Note 4. When the article, or any other merely limiting word, stands before two connected adjectives, (1,) it should be repeated, if they belong to different objects; as, "a white and a red flag," i. e. two flags; (2,) it should be used but once, if they belong to the same object; as, "*this* tall and beautiful tree," i. e. one tree.

Note 5. By a peculiar idiom, *the* is used with comparatives, to denote proportionate equality (332, *a.*); as, "*The* more I see it, *the* better I like it."

Rule VI. A noun or pronoun used to *identify* another noun or pronoun, is put by apposition in the same case; as, "His brother *George* was absent." (Page 53.)

Note. Two or more proper names, or a title and a proper name, applied to one person, though in apposition, should be taken as one complex noun; as, "George Washington;" "General Gates."

Rule VII. A noun or pronoun, used to limit another noun by denoting *possession*, must be in the possessive case; as, "*Stephen's* courage failed." (Page 55. See ¶ 164; see, also, ¶ 205.)

THE OBJECTIVE ELEMENT.

Rule VIII. A noun or pronoun, used as the *object* of a transitive verb or its participles, must be in the objective

case; as, "We paid *him*." (Page 58. See ¶¶ 306 and 295.)

ADVERBIAL ELEMENT.

RULE IX. Adverbs are used to limit verbs, participles, adjectives, and other adverbs. (Page 65.)

NOTE. Two negatives occurring in the same sentence render it affirmative; as, "*Nor* did they *not* perceive their evil plight" = "They did perceive their evil plight." Two negatives are often elegantly used to express an affirmation, one being the prefix of a derivative word; as, "*Nor* was he *un*successful;" "Mine is *not* an *un*welcome task."

INTERJECTIONS, AND THE CASE INDEPENDENT.

RULE X. The nominative case independent, and the interjection, have no grammatical relation to the other parts of the sentence. (Page 68.)

NOTE 1. A noun may be in the nominative case independent, (1,) by *direct address;* as, "*Friends*, awake;"—(2,) by *exclamation;* as, "Oh, solitude!"—(3,) by *pleonasm:* as, "And Harry's *flesh*, it fell away."

NOTE 2. When a noun is used absolutely with a participle, the two are equivalent to a subordinate clause, and are, therefore, grammatically related to the principal clause. (See ¶ 351.)

CONNECTIVES.

NOTE. The following rules apply either to connectives or to words in some way associated with connectives.

RULE XI. *Coördinate* conjunctions are used to connect similar elements. (Page 75.)

RULE XII. When a verb or pronoun relates to two or more nouns connected by a coördinate conjunction,—

1st. If it agrees with them *conjointly*, it must be in the plural number:—

2d. But, if it agrees with them taken *separately*, it must be of the same number as that which stands next to it; —

3d. If it agrees with one, and *not* the other, it must be of the same number as that with which it agrees. (Page 77.)

RULE XIII. A preposition is used to show the relation of its object to the preceding word, on which the object depends; as, "George *went into* the GARDEN." (Page 85.)

RULE XIV. A noun or pronoun used to complete the relation of a preposition, must be in the objective case; as, "They gathered *around him*." (Page 85.)

NOTE 1. The object of the preposition may be either a *word*, *phrase*, or *clause;* as, "He came in *haste;*" "This is a book for *you to read;*" "Much depends upon *who the commissioners are.*"

NOTE 2. The objective is used without a preposition, after *like*, *nigh*, *near*, and *worth*. See, also, Note, page 109.

RULE XV. The infinitive depends upon the word which it limits; as, "We *went to see* you." (Page 87.)

NOTE 1. This rule applies to the infinitive only when it is a subordinate element; when it is a principal element, apply either Rule I. or Rule II.

NOTE 2. The infinitive is often used after *so*, *as*, *too*, and *than*. (See ¶ 233, *a*.)

For the omission of the *to*, see ¶ 213; also ¶ 235, (*a*.)

RULE XVI. *Subordinate* connectives are used to join dissimilar elements. (Page 128.)

NOTE. These connectives are of three kinds, — *conjunctions*, *conjunctive adverbs*, and *relative pronouns*.

RULE XVII. The relative pronoun must agree with its antecedent in *person*, *number*, and *gender*, but not in *case*. (Page 136.)

NOTE 1. This rule is equally true of the personal pronouns, though they do not always, like the relative, have an *immediate* antecedent.

Note 2. When the antecedent is compound, apply Rule XII.

Note 3. When the antecedent is a collective noun, the pronoun should be in the plural number, if the antecedent refers to the individuals composing the collection; otherwise it should be in the singular; as, "The committee *who were* appointed last year submitted no report." If reference were made to the committee as a body, *who* could not be used, but *which* or *that* must be substituted.

For the construction of the relative, see Sect. III., Chap III.

PROSODY.

Prosody treats of the laws of versification.

A *verse* is a succession of accented and unaccented syllables, constituting a line of poetry.

Verse is of two kinds, — *rhyme* and *blank verse.*

In rhyme, there is a correspondence in sound between the last syllables of different lines.

Blank verse is without rhyme.

Accent is a stress of the voice placed upon a particular syllable, to distinguish it from others. Every word consisting of more than one syllable, must have one of its syllables accented.

The *quantity* of a syllable is the time employed in uttering it. All syllables are either *long* or *short.*

A long syllable is equal in quantity to two short ones.

A *foot* is a portion of verse containing two or more syllables, combined according to accent.

The principal feet, in English, are the *iambus*, the *trochee*, the *anapæst*, and the *dactyle.*

The iambus consists of a short and a long syllable.

The trochee consists of a long and a short syllable.

The anapæst consists of two short syllables and one long one.

The dactyle consists of one long and two short syllables.

Scanning consists in dividing a verse into the feet which compose it.

IAMBIC VERSE.

1. *Iambic of one foot:* —

Thĕy gō
To sow.

2. *Iambic of two feet:* —

Tŏ mē | thĕ rōse
No longer glows.

3. *Iambic of three feet:* —

Nŏ rōy- | ăl pōmp | ădōrns
This King of righteousness

4. *Iambic of four feet:* —

And cōld- | ĕr stĭll | thĕ wĭnds | and blōw,
And darker hours of night came on.

5. *Iambic of five feet, or pentameter:* —

On r[illegible]- | ĕd rōcks, | thĕ drăg- | ōn's lāte | ābēdes,
The green reed trembles, and the bulrush nods.

6. *Iambic of six feet, or hexameter:* —

Hĭs heărt | ĭs sād, | hĭs hōpe | ĭs gōne, | hĭs lĭght | ĭs pāssed
He sits and mourns in silent grief the lingering day.

7. *Iambic of seven feet, or heptameter:* —

Thĕ lōf- | tў hĭll, | thĕ hūm- | blĕ lāwn, | wĭth cōunt- | lĕss beaū- | tiĕs shīne.
The silent grove, the solemn shade, proclaim thy power divine.

Iambic of five feet is called *heroic* verse; that of six feet is called *Alexandrine*

Iambic of seven feet is commonly divided into two lines, — the first containing four feet, the second three. This is called *common metre;* as,

The lofty hill, the humble lawn,
With countless beauties shine;
The silent grove, the solemn shade,
Proclaim thy power divine.

In *long metre*, each line has four iambic feet; in *short metre*, the first, second, and fourth lines contain three iambic feet, the third four.

Each species of iambic verse may have one additional short syllable. Thus, in the second species, —

Upōn | ă mōun- | taĭn.

TROCHAIC VERSE.

1. *Trochaic of one foot:* —

Chāngĭng,
Ranging.

2. *Trochaic of two feet:* —

Fāncў̆ | vi̯ēwĭng,
Joys ensuing.

3. *Trochaic of three feet:* —

Gō whĕre | glōrў̆ | wāits thĕe,
But when fame elates thee.

4. *Trochaic of four feet:* —

Rōund ă | hōlў̆ | călm dĭf- | fūsĭng,
Love of peace and lonely musing.

5. *Trochaic of five feet:* —

All thăt | wălk ŏn | fōot ŏr | rīde ĭn | chārĭŏts,
All that dwell in palaces or garrets.

6. *Trochaic of six feet:* —

On ă | mōuntăin | strētched, bĕ- | nēath ă | hōarў̆ | wīllŏw,
Lay a shepherd swain, and viewed the rolling billow.

. In trochaic verse, the accent is placed upon the odd syllables; in iambic, on the even.

Trochaic verse may take an additional long syllable; as,

Idlĕ, | āftĕr | dīnnĕr, | īn hĭs | chāir
Sat a farmer, ruddy, fat, and fair.

ANAPÆSTIC VERSE.

1. *Anapæstic of one foot:* —

Bŭt ĭn vāin
They complain.

2. *Anapæstic of two feet:* —

Whĕre thĕ sūn | lŏves tŏ pāuse
With so fond a delay.

3. *Anapæstic of three feet:* —

Frŏm thĕ cēn- | trĕ, āll rōund | tŏ thĕ sēa,
I'm lord of the fowl and the brute.

4. *Anapæstic of four feet:* —

At thĕ clōse | ŏf thĕ day, | whĕn thĕ hām | lĕt ĭs stīll,
And mōrtals the sweets of forgētfulness prove.

In anapæstic verse, the accent falls on every third syllable. The first foot of an anapæstic verse may be an iambus; as,

And mōr- | tăls thĕ swēets | ŏf fŏrgēt- | fŭlnĕss prōve

DACTYLIC VERSE

1. *Dactylic of one foot:* —

Chēerfŭllў,
Fearfully.

2. *Dactylic of two feet:* —

Freē frŏm ănx- | ĭĕtў,
Care and satiety

3. *Dactylic of three feet:* —

Wearing a- | way in his | youthfulness,
Loveliness, beauty, and truthfulness.

4. *Dactylic of four feet:* —

Boys will ăn- | ticipăte, | lavĭsh, ănd | dissipăte
All that your busy pate hoarded with care

Few poems are perfectly regular in their feet. The different kinds of feet are often mingled in the same verse. Thus: —

I cōme, | I cōme; | yĕ hăve cālled | mĕ lōng;
I cōme | ŏ'er thĕ mōun- | taĭns wĭth līght | ănd sōng.

NOTE. For exercises in scanning, let the pupil apply these rules to different verses in his reading lessons.

PUNCTUATION.

PUNCTUATION is the art of dividing written composition by means of points.

These points may be divided into two classes, — those which separate the *parts* of a sentence, and those which separate *entire* sentences.

The former are the *comma* (,), the *semicolon* (;), the *colon* (:), the *dash* (—), and the *parenthesis* ( ); the latter are the *period* (.), the *interrogation point* (?), and the *exclamation point* (!).

I. — POINTS USED WITHIN A SENTENCE.

The Comma.

The comma is used principally to separate the elements of compact sentences. (421.)

The use of the comma may be reduced to three general principles: —

I. When the elements of a sentence are *simple*, and are arranged in the natural order, (401,) they should not be separated; but when any element is transposed, loosely connected, or used parenthetically, it should be pointed off.

EXAMPLES.

"The path of virtue is the path of peace."

"Self-denial is the sacrifice *which virtue must make*."

"*Intrinsically*, the other is the most valuable."

"*In general*, his work is superior to mine."

"He lived, *as he said*, upon a vegetable diet."

(*a.*) The following words and phrases are pointed off by this rule: — *Again*, *besides*, *moreover*, *nay*, *hence*, *thus*, *formerly*, *first*, *secondly*, *lastly*, *namely*, *once more*, *in short*, *in truth*, *above all*, *on the contrary*, *in the next place*.

(*b.*) The nominative case independent, and several of the interjections, are pointed off by the comma; since they are not elements of the sentence, and consequently are not closely connected; as, "My son, hear the instructions of thy father;" "For, lo, I will call all the families of the kingdoms of the north."

(*c.*) When a simple element of the third class is not closely connected, or used in a restrictive sense, it is pointed off by the comma, though arranged in the natural order; as, "He will go, *if it is possible*."

II. When an element is *complex*, and considerably extended, it should be pointed off by the comma.

(*a.*) By this rule, the complex subject of a simple sentence, when long, should be separated by the comma from the predicate; as, "*The intermixture of evil in human society*, serves to exercise the noblest virtues of the human soul."

(*b.*) The clauses of a complex sentence should be separated by the comma, when the subordinate clause is complex, and is not used in a restrictive sense; as, "We sometimes forget our faults, *when we are not reminded of them*." Abridged clauses

(341) generally follow the same rule as complete clauses as, "*Shame being lost*, all virtue is lost."

(*c.*) The noun in apposition, when limited by several words, should be pointed off; as, "Paul, *the apostle of the Gentiles.*'

(*d.*) When a sentence contains several extended adverbial elements of the second or third class, they should be separated by the comma; as, "The ancients separated the corn *from the ear*, *by causing an ox to trample on the sheaves.*"

III. When an element is *compound*, the component parts are generally separated by the comma; as, "Some men sin *frequently*, *deliberately*, and *presumptuously.*"

(*a.*) When a compound element consists of but two simple elements, the parts should not be separated, unless the conjunction which connects them is understood; as, "*Peter* and *John* went up into the temple;" "A *bold*, *decisive* blow was struck."

(*b.*) When *or* denotes an alternative of words, and not ideas, the two connected words should be separated by the comma; as, "The *gulf*, or *bay*, is dangerous." Nearly allied to this construction is that in which the same word is repeated; as, "*Verily verily*, I say unto you."

(*c.*) Two simple elements, so connected as to show opposition or contrast, should be pointed by the general rule; as, "Though *deep*, yet *clear;*" "Though *fallen*, *great.*"

(*d.*) If both elements are complex, and considerably extended, or if one is complex and the other is not, a comma may be placed between them. This rule applies particularly to the compound predicate; as, "He *left*, and *took* his brother with him."

(*e.*) When words are joined in pairs, the pairs are separated from each other, but not the words composing them; as, "*Hope* and *fear*, *pleasure* and *pain*, diversify our lives."

(*f.*) When the conjunction which connects two elements is omitted, the comma takes its place; as, "Thomas is a *plain*, *honest* man." So, also, when a verb is understood, the comma takes its place; as, "From law arises security; from security, curiosity; from curiosity, knowledge."

(*g.*) When the connected parts are clauses, whether coördi

nate or subordinate, and are closely united, they should be separated by the comma; as, "Life is short, and art is long;" "I neither knew *what I was*, *where I was*, nor *from whence I came*."

The Colon and Semicolon.

The *colon* and *semicolon* are used chiefly to separate the members of a loose sentence (420); as, "Every thing grows old; every thing passes away; every thing disappears."

NOTE. The colon is now but little used, except before examples following the expressions *as follows*, *the following examples*, *in these words*, &c.; as, "Perform the following exercises:" — "He used these words: "Mr. President," &c.

(*a.*) When, in a complex sentence, several subordinate clauses are united to each other, having a common dependence upon the principal clause, they are separated by the semicolon; as, "Philosophers assert that Nature is unlimited in her operations; that she has inexhaustible treasures in reserve; that knowledge will always be progressive; and that future generations will continue to make discoveries.

The Dash and Parenthesis.

The *dash* is used where there is a significant pause, an unexpected transition in the sentence, or where a sentence is left unfinished; as, "He sometimes counsel takes — and sometimes snuff;" "But I must first ———"

(*a.*) The dash is now frequently used instead of the parenthesis, as, "The colonists — such is human nature — desired to burn the town in which they had been so wretched."

The *parenthesis* is used to enclose a part of a sentence not necessary to the construction, but in some way explanatory of the meaning of the sentence; as, "Consider (and may the consideration sink deep into your hearts) the fatal consequences of a wicked life."

II.—POINTS USED AT THE CLOSE OF A SENTENCE

The Period.

The *period* is used at the close of a declarative or imperative sentence; as, "The work is done." "Obey your parents."

The period is also used to denote an abbreviation; as, "P. M.;" "Dr."

Interrogation Point.

An *interrogation point* is used at the close of a question; as, "Who comes there?"

(*a.*) When an interrogative sentence is used as a subordinate clause, —

(1.) The interrogation point is employed when the clause is quoted directly (299, *c.*); as, "He said, 'Why do you weep?'"

(2.) The interrogation point is not employed when the clause is quoted indirectly (299); as, "He asked me why I wept."

Exclamation Point.

An *exclamation point* is used at the close of an exclamatory sentence; as, "How unsearchable are his ways!"

(*a.*) An exclamation point is often used within a sentence, after an exclamatory expression or an interjection; as, "O, Jove supreme! whom men and gods revere!" "Oh! let soft pity touch the mind!"

OTHER MARKS USED IN WRITING.

Brackets ([ ]) are used when a word or phrase is introduced for explanation or correction; as, "He [the teacher] thus explained the difficulty."

The *apostrophe* (') is used either to denote the omission of a letter or the possessive case ; as, " o'er ; " " John's.'

The *quotation marks* (" ") are used to include a passage taken verbatim from some other author ; as, *He said*, " I relinquish my claim."

The *asterisk* (*), the *obelisk* (†), the *double dagger* (‡), and the *parallels* (‖), are used to refer to notes in the margin, or at the bottom of the page.

The *caret* (^) is used in writing, to show that some letter, word, or phrase, has been omitted ; as, " The pencil lies on the table."

The *hyphen* (-) is used to separate the parts of a compound word ; as, *book-binder*. When placed at the end of a line, it shows that a word is divided, the remaining part being carried to the next line.

The *ellipsis* (* * *) (——) is used to denote the omission of certain letters or words ; as, " C * * * ll ; " " k——g."

The *brace* { connects a number of words with one common term.

The *index* (☞) points to some remarkable passage.

The *section* (§) denotes the divisions of a treatise.

A *paragraph* (¶) denotes the beginning of a new subject.

The vowel marks are the *diæresis* (··), placed over the second of two vowels which are separated ; the *long* sound (-), placed over a long vowel ; the *breve* or *short* sound (∪), placed over a short vowel ; and accents, *grave* (`), *acute* (´), and *circumflex* (^).

NOTE. For exercises in punctuation, let the pupil explain the marks in any passage in his reading lesson.

RULES FOR THE USE OF CAPITAL LETTERS

1. The first word of every entire sentence should begin with a capital; as, "Jesus wept."

2. Titles of honor and respect, and every proper name, and every adjective derived from a proper name, should begin with a capital; as, *His Highness*, *Boston*, *Bostonian*.

3. Every appellation of the Deity should begin with a capital; as, *God*, *Jehovah*, *the Eternal*.

4. The first word of every line in poetry should begin with a capital.

5. The words *I* and *O* should always be capitals.

6. Any important word may begin with a capital.

7. The principal words in the titles of books should begin with capitals; as, Pope's "Essay on Man."

8. The first word of a direct quotation, when the quotation forms a complete sentence by itself, should begin with a capital.

THE END.

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